

Best Practices of a Sport for Development: A Case Study of an African Organization

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Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of  
Master of Arts in Applied Health Sciences  
(Sport Management)

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### **Abstract**

Sport-for-development is the active practice of achieving social ideals through the use of sport and other traditional development programs. The purpose of this thesis was to evaluate SFD best practices from the context of an African organization development project. The case was a development organization in Zambia, Africa that was utilizing sport within its strategy. The data collection and analysis framed using Curado and Bontis (2007) MIC Matrix, the Sport For Development International Working Group's (2007) best practices model, and B. Kidd's (2011) Sport-in-Development Logic Model. The research supports that a SFD project is multi-faceted and should include the employment of strategic community programming on the basis of collaborative and integrative sport, health care and education. Further, the researcher found that the best practices include setting specific goals and objectives, as well as instituting regular monitoring and evaluation strategies.

## Definitions

**Postmodernism** and **de constructivism** refer to the growth of critical theory, while highlighting the power of social forces in the advancement of modern society. According to the Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy (2005) described postmodernism as

a set of critical, strategic and rhetorical practices employing concepts such as difference, repetition, the trace, the simulacrum, and hyper reality to destabilize other concepts such as presence, identity, historical progress, epistemic certainty, and the unicity of meaning (para. 1).

**A neoliberal vision** of development is an ideology “born and refined in the North, mainly to meet the needs of the dominant powers in search of a more ‘appropriate’ tool for their economic and geopolitical expansion” (Rahnema & Bawtree, 1997, p. 379). Development is often referred to in a more holistic, systemic set of meanings and applications that materialized out of economic growth models and previous cohorts of development and policy makers (Hartmann & Kwauk, 2011). In this sense, development can be a both a holistic (economic) design of social transformation and neoliberal hegemony (Hartmann & Kwauk, 2011).

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## CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Sport-for-development (SFD) is the practice of achieving social ideas through the use of sport and other traditional development programs. SFD has undergone rapid expansion throughout the world in the past few years. In this thesis, SFD is defined by Lyras (2007) as “the use of sport to exert a positive influence on public health, the socialization of children, youths and adults, the social inclusion of the disadvantaged, the economic development of region and states, and on fostering intercultural exchange and conflict resolution” (p. 6). What’s more, SFD has been employed as a method to transform communities into places with a better quality of living. This transformation has been pursued by promoting messages such as unity, peace and human greatness, and the power of sport has been a vehicle utilized within this promotion. The discipline of SFD has grown to encompass thousands of programs working at achieving individual and societal change (Kidd, 2011; Levermore, 2011). For instance, numerous SFD initiatives have the goal of assisting the at-risk populace on a global level. These programs alter the focus of conventional sport practice into more human oriented initiatives, policies, and governance (Lyras & Peachey, 2011).

### **Sport for Development Theory (SFDT)**

Researchers have indicated that there are gaps in the comprehensive evaluation of SFD initiatives (Hartmann & Kwauk, 2011; Kidd, 2011; Levermore, 2011; Levermore & Beacom, 2012). Additionally, and importantly, Smith and Waddington (2004) argued that the impact of research on sport participation to policy makers has been weakened. This weakness has been noted as including a lack of theoretical development and that the monitoring and evaluation of such initiatives need to be extended within both the theoretical and empirically grounded perspectives.

Lyras and Peachey (2011) attempted to address the SFD issues noted above by providing the theoretical foundations of SFD theory. These two researchers represented the fundamental features and foundation of SFD theory to scientifically “explain, describe and predict” how sport can effect social change. This SFD theory aimed to articulate how sport organizations can successfully advance social change and development. Overall, Lyras and Peachey purported that SFDT can help advance social change and personal progression through the following five theoretical building blocks: the impacts assessment, organizational, sport/physical activity, educational and cultural enrichment components. Additionally, Lyras

and Peachey employed a SFD theory program proposal to compare and contrast two interventions that used sport to promote positive social change, one at the global level, the other local. In addition, Levermore and Beacom (2012) highlighted fundamental discourses for SFD that provided the basis for SFD theory with respect to discourses. These discourses encompassed, first, the extent to which local communities are exposed to varying points of international influence during the development process. Second, they suggested future research should critically evaluate motivations behind the increasing involvement of organizations and their SFD programs. It is important to note that SFD programs can be generalized across sectors of the sport industry including areas such as nongovernmental organizations, nonprofit sport, intercollegiate athletics, and the Olympic movement, (Lyras & Peachey, 2011). Third, and finally, they reiterated the importance of continually developing means for evaluating and monitoring SFD programs (Levermore & Beacom, 2012).

### **Outline of the Research**

The purpose of this thesis research was to explore SFD best practices in the context of an organization in Africa. Throughout this thesis the project will be referred to as the African Organization Development Project (AODP). It is important to note that this project was considered to be an African organization; however, its origins and support system were from the United Kingdom. This means that the organization was conceptualized in the northern hemisphere and applied within Africa. The case was a development organization that was utilizing sport within its strategy. The research involved a case study with participatory action research. This research sought to advance knowledge on SFD. In particular, the knowledge focused on the development of understandings for the particular SFD program; as well, the research aimed, in part, to advance the development of theory on SFD.

Overall, this research aimed to offer an understanding of community development through participation, as this thesis author travelled to Zambia in order to study the selected SFD program. This allowed the author to be a “change agent” (Schulenkorf, 2011, p. 4) in the field with a deep understanding of the literature relevant to the SFD discipline. This knowledge of literature acquired prior to heading to Africa was deemed important, as entering an environment with knowledge of some of the issues and challenges that communities were experiencing was of immense value to the researcher.

The Research questions posed for this thesis included:



1. What is the sport for development best practices from the context of an Africa?
2. How can understandings of the sport for development program under study in the African context advance SFD theory?

My desire to study this topic in Zambia, Africa stemmed from my belief in the power of sport as a vehicle for growth and my interest in the development of a global community. Moreover, my interest in the idea of sport as a vehicle for development first began in my third year studying sport management as an undergraduate in university. From a young age, sport played a significant role in my life, and now the idea that it could be used to develop communities was very inspirational. The vision that was instilled over the duration of this SFD class drastically altered the direction of my life. Since graduation, I have held several professional positions all of which have been in the area of nonprofit industry with a focus on social development.

### **Sustainability and Its Application to SFD**

In this research, sustainability was a fundamental underlying concept. Sustainability has multiple forms, and in this thesis, the term followed the work of Lindsey (2008) as well as Sheridiac-Rizkallah and Bone (1998). To begin, Lindsey placed sustainability into four categories or forms: individual, community, organizational, and institutional sustainability. The aforementioned categories are building blocks in the development of sustainable programming, service delivery, or partnerships (Lindsey, 2008). Individual sustainability was defined as “longer-term changes in individuals’ attitudes, aptitudes and/or behavior through involvement with sport development program” (Lindsey, 2008, p. 282). Additionally, he defined community sustainability as “maintenance of changes in the community in which the sports development is delivered” (p. 282). Organizational sustainability was defined as “the maintenance or expansion of sports development programs by the organization responsible for their delivery” (Lindsey, 2008, p. 283). Finally, institutional sustainability was defined as “longer-term changes in policy, practice, economic and environmental conditions in the wider context of the sports development program” (Lindsey, p. 284). This meant that a SFD program needed to consider sustainability simultaneously from the individual participant level, the community level, the sport organizational level, as well as the development of the institutional level.

Meanwhile, Sheridiac-Rizkallah and Bone (1998) proposed that there were three different

processes affecting the implementation of sustainability within an organization that are important to grasp from a practical and planning perspective. Project design and implementation factors included the process of give and take supporting a program, the effectiveness of a program, the length of time obtainable for the program to address sustainability, the available financial capital, and the training available to determine human capital. Factors within the organizational setting included the strength of the organization delivering the program, the extent to which programs are incorporated into organizational structures, and the existence and capabilities of program champions or leaders. Additionally, factors in the broader community environment included the political, social, and economic environment of the program and the level of community involvement (Sheridiac-Rizkallah & Bone, 1998).

World Vision described two different forms of sustainability, transformation development and immediate need (Lindsey, 2008). According to Lindsey (2008), transformation development could be defined as “positive change that is community based and sustainable with special emphasis with the well-being of children” (p. 20). It empowers youth, families, and communities to identify and overcome obstacles that prevent them from fulfillment in life (Lindsey, 2008). Examples of transformative change include: micro loans, purchasing of a brick factory, purchasing livestock, and skill development for local peoples. Additionally, examples of immediate need include: building homes, building schools, primary health care, food, and child health care (Lindsey, 2008).

In this study, sustainability referred to the capacity of the SFD project operating in the African community to be sustained if the organization under study cancelled the project. The sustainability includes maintaining the local staff members, the organizational programming, and the institutional relationships/partnerships to advance the SFD initiatives. It is important to note that this 12-week study only allows for conjecture. A 3-5 year longitudinal study is necessary to be able to fully determine the state of the AODP.

### **Outline of the Chapters**

After Chapter 1 One: Introduction, this thesis provides a review of literature in Chapter Two. The topics in the review of literature include: corporate social responsibility, exploring its meaning, sport for development: a framework, directions in sport for development, sport for development best practices, three areas of capital, sport-in-development logic model, sport for development: program checklist, best

practices: the eight categories, best practices in strategic planning for community empowerment, the agent of change in sustainable development, sustainability theory and resource based view theory. Next, Chapter Three: Methodology outlines the research examination. This outline provides an overview of the context is sport for development AODP. Further, critical theory, sustainability theory, and resource-based theory are presented, along with the worldview. Additionally, the research questions, biases, trust-building and rapport, and, importantly, the data collection and analysis are provided. Chapter Four: Findings and Discussion provide a complete presentation and discussion on the resulting data from the thesis study, and described the implications, and conclusions. Finally, Chapter Five: Conclusions offers a synopsis of the study, and the overall conclusions, implications, and recommendations. It must be noted that prior to instituting this research a Research Ethics Board review was completed (13-007-MALLEN). This included vetting the ethical considerations associated with this particular research study, the research informed consent, confidentiality, and my role as the researcher.

## **CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF LITERATURE**

This chapter offers a review of literature on a number of SFD related topics. These topics include corporate social responsibility (CSR), exploring its meaning, alternative forms, SFD best practices, CSR and sport, an international movement, community development and participation, including its advantages and challenges, the agent of change, a SFD framework, the agency tensions, power relations in the global south, monitoring and evaluation of programs, and finally, directions in SFD.

### **Corporate Social Responsibility**

SFD is encompassed within the CSR umbrella. Overall, there have been several attempts to conceptualize an understanding of CSR and to develop a robust definition. Many of these have been recorded in Carroll's (1999) seminal literature review of CSR definitions. Moir (2001) then expanded on the literature review of CSR definitions, and this was followed by Joyner and Payne (2002), along with Carter and Jennings (2004). In this study, CSR was defined by the World Business Council for Sustainable Development (1999) as "the commitment of business to contribute to sustainable economic development, working with employees, their families, the local community and society at large to improve their quality of life" (p. 4).

### **Exploring the Meaning of Sport for Development**

One challenge in SFD has to do with the conception of development. Hartmann and Kwauk (2011) argued that "development is one of those generally appealing but deeply complicated and poly-vocal terms that resonate in scholarly circles and popular audiences, the problem is that it means many things to many people" (p. 286). Accordingly, development can be viewed through a philosophical lens as the advancement of the human race or in a practical sense as the social engineering of developing nations (Esteva, 1992; McMichael, 2009). Also, development can be conceptualized on an individual level where it is often associated with somewhat rigid, normative conceptions of socialization and advancement through linear stages or targets to a more comprehensive form. Further, this personal orientation is often reappropriated within a discussion of human capacities and freedoms as well as within the politics of citizenship and identity (Hartmann & Kwauk, 2011)

Moreover, development is often referred to in a more holistic, systemic set of meanings and applications that materialized out of economic growth models and previous cohorts of development and

policy makers. In this sense, development can be both a holistic (economic) design of social transformation and neoliberal hegemony. Scholars argued that the neoliberal vision of development is an ideology “born and refined in the North, mainly to meet the needs of the dominant powers in search of a more ‘appropriate’ tool for their economic and geopolitical expansion” (Rahnema, 1997, p. 379). What’s more a series of pragmatic alterations in the 1960s and 70s resulted in terminology such as poverty alleviation, community empowerment, human rights, whereby, development has become a term associated with transforming the global south from conditions of poverty and stimulating social, political and economic change through education (Finnemore, 1997; Peet, 1999; Sachs, 1992). Whenever conceptualizing ideas in relation to development, Hartmann and Kwauk (2011) stated, “We believe multiplicity and ambiguity surrounding conceptions of development presents one of the most important initial challenges for understanding and theorizing sport for development” (p. 286).

### **A Sport For Development Framework**

If the objective of community development is to mobilize participation and engagement, Auld and Case (1997) argued that the main objective is the assimilation of the populace within a community in an environment that can cooperate, support each other and, contribute to decision making. Borgman (1992) believed that the integration of the population within a recreation activity contributed to a meaningful context. He also described that such a “community of celebration” can be stimulated through recreational activities.

Further, the Australian Bureau of Statistics (2002) detailed that participation in sport and cultural activities can mobilize the population and create feelings of camaraderie and support during collaboration. Engaging in community initiatives, thus, may be the beginning of the establishment of community networks and connections important for social unity (Misener & Mason, 2006; Schulenkorf, Thompson & Schlenker, 2011).

However, Kidd (2008) and Coalter (2010a) believed that sport-based community development initiatives were not a priori positive or negative. What’s more, some researchers argued that sport and event environments contributed to conflict amongst the population. For example, anti-social behavior at sport and events may result in the revitalization of historically negative stereotypes (Dimeo & Kay, 2004). Accordingly, in order to achieve positive results, Coalter (2007a) and Sudgen (2006) argued

that sport and event initiatives must be strategically planned to create an environment that breeds positive social and human development. Furthermore, while the analysis of sport and event initiatives emphasized sports' unique ability to influence positively on individuals and groups, it does not provide a guaranteed strategic course of action or frameworks for community empowerment and social development Directions in SFD Programs.

Chalip (2006) declared that frameworks for strategic planning did not exist. In order to fill this gap, his article outlined the Sport-for-Development Framework, which can be employed to help support the strategic exploration and evaluation of sport and event project and their influence to mobilizing all-encompassing social change, enhancing local capacities and general community empowerment. This framework is outlined in the best practices in strategic planning for community empowerment section. Furthermore, the next section moves to focus on the directions for SFD programming in the future, outlining the idea of a cross disciplinary approach to SFD programming.

### **Directions in Sport For Development Programs**

There are multiple directions within SFD programs; several directions will be outlined in this section. To begin, B. Kidd (2011) argued that "SFD programs need to be linked to other interventions such as education, health and employment to be sport plus or team up sport" (p. 604). This idea of sport plus initiatives reaffirmed the benefits of a cross disciplinary approach in sport management. This implied that the broader development goals that can be expected to be achieved through sport are most likely to occur when utilizing sport plus programs. Thus, each SFD program must offer successful athletic activities as well as operate sophisticated development programming.

Another direction in SFD arose from an analysis of SFD literature that indicated that sport management academics have demonstrated implicit and explicit acceptance that sport management is a construct of the capitalist system (or a financially based system) that has been narrowly defined by the hyper commercial narratives that dominate our discipline, as outlined by Zeigler (2007). The dominant, capitalist vision of development has not been about structural transformation; rather it has been based on the notion of re socializing, recalibrating youth that results in maintaining power, hierarchy, cultural hegemony and the institutionalization of poverty and privilege. Thus, the dominant form of development rarely brings about any sustained social change (Hartmann & Kwauk, 2011). Further, Levermore and Beacom (2012)

described that the

implicit and explicit acceptance that sport-for-development is a ‘top-down’, principally ‘Global North’-led process and that all sport-for-development programs are shaped to various degrees by this international process, limiting the possibility of them operating some level of independence. (p. 127)

This north versus south situation will be discussed further in the section below entitled: sport for development and tensions from power relations in the global south. Further, these authors discussed “the extent to which decentralization, assertion of localism, independence from the “world (capitalist) system” occurs is indeed largely lacking in much SFD literature” (Levermore & Beacom, 2012, p. 127). Accordingly, many programs have not been reproductive for local communities from the local perspective; thus, development has been rendered destructive, spreading a homogenizing global imagination to all pockets of the world (Peet, 1999).

There is a trend that offers a radical shift whereby development has been proposed that was “more than simply restoring local control; it also requires that structures of human inequality, oppression and exploitation be recognized, challenged and actively transformed” (Hartmann & Kwauk, 2011, p. 294). As a means to incorporate these new understandings, a progressive sports-based approach is now encouraged that begins with an evaluation of the current social order and its apparent power relations and social inequality. Further, education would not be an intended means of socializing deviant or marginalized youth. Instead, it would be about empowering the community and understanding the context of power and privilege (Hartmann & Kwauk, 2011). This requires an understanding of the community. Looking at development from this critical lens opens the options for different locally empowered perspectives.

Another direction in the SFD literature involves that over the past decade, the efficacy of SFD programming has come under debate (Levermore, 2008a; Levermore & Beacom, 2012; Hartman & Kwauk 2011). It has now become imperative that SFD programming must deliver empirical results showcasing program effectiveness (Levermore & Beacom, 2012). It has been noted that strategic cross-disciplinary monitoring and evaluation must be employed to provide efficacy in SFD programming (Levermore & Beacom, 2012). Literature in SFD has highlighted the importance of cross disciplinary approaches in order to create comprehensive programming. For example, during the Sport and the Global South conference in Washington D.C., a speech by the President of the United States Soccer Foundation,

Ed Foster-Simeon (personal communication, 2012) discussed the importance of monitoring and evaluating through the collection of empirical data which speaks to the success of their soccer programs. Thereby, in conjunction with the Department of Psychology at Stanford University, the US Soccer Federation implemented the Stanford Social Innovator Review/Collective Impact. Accordingly, movements towards improving the efficacy with cross-disciplinary strategies have been employed in order to achieve successful SFD programming.

Further, when conceptualizing development, Hartmann and Kwauk (2011) stated, “We believe multiplicity and ambiguity surrounding conceptions of development presents one of the most important initial challenges for understanding and theorizing sport for development” (p. 286). It is the assertion of this thesis author that sport management should recognize the same multiplicity and ambiguity that exists within the discipline. In doing so, we would broaden our intellectual horizons and present the additional theoretical and practical insight that our rapidly developing discipline requires (Amis & Silk, 2005). In such a dynamic, integrated state, sport management would then evolve into “a set of not necessarily complementary vectors—a messier, challenging environment, in which competing ontological, epistemological, and political positions exist alongside one another” (Amis & Silk, 2005, p. 356).

What’s more, the simultaneous growth of sport management and the sub discipline of SFD signify a thrust from the outer context of our society. These complementary vectors are transforming through such concerns as decentering, multiplicity, pluralism, inequality, power relations, and the challenging of dominant capitalist narratives that have been the overriding standard in the academic landscape. Overall, the progressive nature of SFD mirrors the wide ranging social awareness and the growing worldwide social business.

### **Sport For Development and The International Movement**

Lindsey and Gratton (2011) declared that recent literature has, for the majority of time, described SFD as an “international movement” created by northern organizations, while situated and employed in the global south (Darnell & Hayhurst, 2011). The north and south issue was noted above in the section called Directions in SFD Programs. In this section, this north and south issue is further reviewed based on internationalization. It is notable that even though an increasing number of organizations are financing and operating SFD programs in the global south, the directive of critical SFD research has often



ignored the way that the people living in the south experience the offerings of sport-based development initiatives (Darnell & Hayhurst, 2011). This is an issue that the author of this paper will be focusing upon during the reflective journal activities. Additionally, critical SFD literature has, for the most part, ignored the ways in which local communities employ sport to achieve their own development objectives (Lindsey & Gratton, 2011).

Interestingly, Lindsey and Gratton (2011) aimed to work with locals to mobilize the community and challenge the notion that sport-based development efforts are strictly a northern-led construct. As the authors demonstrated, community leaders in two Zambian cities had not been introduced to the idea of sport-based development initiatives by northern-led organizations. As such, these individuals were not obligated to the economic, political, and social ideologies shared by northern institutions within a top-down development model. Accordingly, this reality is of great significance given the recent developments in literature that examined the struggle for “sustainable, egalitarian and social justice” (Darnell & Hayhurst, 2011, p. 113). This is extremely important because the current streams of literature discussed the integration of development efforts that challenge northern development perspectives. Furthermore, this has resulted in researchers needing to work towards redefining development as “the act or process of resistance to a dominant political economy that perpetuates inequality (internationally or domestically) and undermines self-determination for a vast portion of the world’s population” (Darnell & Hayhurst, 2011, p. 113). McMichael (2009) argued that development *is* the struggle in the face of disempowerment and illustrations of south poverty as preordained and expected. The aforementioned repositioning of development is in absolute contrast to conventional streams of development, initiated by northern-led organizations that often perpetuate inequalities and power relations.

Lindsey and Gratton (2011) also demonstrated that the boundaries of development efforts, in institutional as well as political terms, remain dynamic and hard to classify and explain coherently (see also Giulianotti, 2004). Accordingly, researchers encourage scholars researching SFD to be very careful about generalizing results from a single study. Moreover, Lindsey and Gratton’s results reaffirm the need to categorize between the wider SFD movement (such as one led by the United Nations) and the “less formulized” use of sport-based development programs employed in a variety of local contexts (Darnell and Hayhurst, 2011).

Further, Lindsey and Gratton (2011) also discussed the challenge of the swelling “long-aid chain” in SFD, whereby international assistance passes through a variety of groups (including civil society organizations, faith-based groups, and local nongovernmental organizations (NGOs’) before reaching the “targeted recipients” (Darnell & Hayhurst, 2011, p. 114). The sheer number of actors involved in this process makes it difficult to ensure that the top-end objectives are carried out at the bottom of the chain. Accordingly, unpredictable social climates may affect the program regardless of how much effort is put into the design by the parent organization. According to Darnell and Hayhurst (2011), “there is a clear need for further research that attends to the ebbs and flows of aid in sport -for-development as it passes through a wide range of contexts, organizations and sociopolitical processes, and not always in a coherent or linear manner” (p. 114).

### **Sport For Development Agency Tensions**

There are a number of tensions that arise in the SFD field. Many of these tensions stem from the support, or lack of support, for SFD as a strategy for spending. Additionally, the activities required to obtain donor funding can cause tensions, as well as the expected timing of results, along with issues of the abuse of funding distribution, each of these examples of tensions in SFD will now be discussed.

To date, key international development agencies, such as the World Bank and International Monetary Fund, have failed to truly embrace SFD (B. Kidd, 2008; Levermore, 2008a; Levermore & Beacom, 2012). This lack of involvement in SFD projects could be credited to the preoccupation with economic growth over social objectives and the position by (Levermore, 2008a) any traditional development policy makers view sport as “male dominated, corrupt and greedy” (p. 188). Additionally, the view of sport as a panacea has resulted in the alienation of development agencies (Guest, 2009). This is because there is some substance to the assertion that sport is a distraction from important matters such as food and water. The absence of research investigating the sport/development relationship has resulted in extensive gaps in knowledge in this field. Accordingly, SFD, as a practice, has encountered resistance from mainstream NGOs’, development agencies as a tool to assist in development. For instance, The World Bank reiterated this statement in its 2007 Development Report, and suggested that the use of SFD is “promising but unproven” (Levermore, 2008a).

NGO conflict is created over interference with donor initiated actions (Levermore, 2008a).

Additionally, there is widespread discomfort over threats of donor takeover. Further, sport plus programs have been noted to put too much weight on development goals in order to secure financial resources (Levermore, 2008a). Thereby, SFD partners often enter into contracts with dissimilar motives (Levermore, 2008a).

Tensions have occurred as donors have sought immediate results, while often development projects are long-term investment projects (Levermore, 2008a). Furthermore, issues have stemmed from excessive bureaucracy and a lack of corporate efficacy that have contributed to the inherent financial partnership tensions (Levermore, 2008a). Additionally, development experts are not always confident in the distribution of funding for planning and the knowledge base of those involved in SFD programming. Funds do not always go where expected. For example, it was discovered that FIFA President, Sepp Blatter, offered money from the GOAL development program to ensure that he retained election votes (Levermore, 2008a).

### **Sport For Development Tensions from Power Relations in the Global South**

Agency tensions are not the only SFD issues; there are deep seeded global north versus south issues as well. There is a growing tendency, mainly by western institutions from NGOs', sports federations, development agencies, and multinational corporations that support development initiatives in low income regions of the world, to understand that there has been an abuse of power relations between the global north and south. Indicators point to the failure of traditional, orthodox development strategies focusing on modernization through economic and industrial growth. Efforts to improve living standards and alleviate poverty have largely failed. With over 60 years of these policies, poverty has only increased (Levermore, 2008b).

Additionally, Levermore and Beacom (2012) stated that “over the past decade, as the efficacy of many development interventions was being challenged, sports-based development initiatives appeared to offer alternative conduits for addressing health, education and other developmental concerns” (p. 125). A case study by researchers Lindsey and Gratton (2011) provided commentary on an explicit focus on northern actors involved with SFD initiatives and put forward a “decentered” approach that included a slightly different way to conceptualize “southern voices”, thereby expanding our knowledge of the development process. Levermore and Beacom (2012) described

the implicit and explicit acceptance that sport for development is a “top-down”,

principally “global north” led process and that all SFD programs are shaped to various degrees by this international process, limiting the possibility of them operating some level of independence (p. 127).

Further, the authors discussed “the extent to which decentralization, assertion of localism, independence from the “world (capitalist) system” occurs is indeed largely lacking in much sport-for-development literature” (Levermore & Beacom, 2012, p. 127).

What’s more, regions are so diverse economically, politically, and culturally that it is unwise to categorize them as a whole. This idea is expressed by McFarlane (2006) where he described, “categorizations as an endless pursuit” (p. 1413). This is a fault of western ideology, attempting to fit everything into a box, referred to by Lindsey and Gratton as the “the folly of categorization” (p. 8). Further, it is common practice to “pluralize” the global south. McFarlane argued that categories “are imaginative barriers that militate against the possibility of different countries to learn from one another” (p. 1415). He described the propensity to focus on a limited number of similar speaking countries. This leads the dispute that what is necessary is a more globally informed social science, which “pluralizes” the creation of knowledge.

Hartmann and Kwauk (2011) put forth the notion that development was an ideology “born and refined in the North, mainly to meet the needs of the dominant powers in research of a more appropriate tool for their economic and geopolitical expansion” (Rahnema, 1997, p. 379). Accordingly, this implied that conventional development practices overlook local norms, local knowledge, the sociocultural and political-economic contexts, as well as the requirements of communities themselves. Furthermore, the global south is generalized as powerless to govern, develop, liberate, or transform themselves without procedural assistance from development practitioners and policy makers from the Global North (Escobar, 1995; Rahnema, 1997). In this scenario, Peet (1999) argued that “instead of being generative, then, development is rendered destructive, spreading a homogenizing global imagination to all pockets of the world” (p. 294).

What’s more, Hartman and Kwauk (2012) described the conventional development processes as those which serve to impose northern visions of health, education, and social development in communities in the south. The socialization or education of youth is mostly about “recalibrating” individual identities rather than the development of traditional skills and values. Hartmann and Kwauk (2011) stated,

“we are concerned that sport-based development programs are often not as focused and effective as they could be. Even worse, we believe some of these well-intended initiatives may not be serving the ends toward which they are directed, or are even having counterproductive results” (p. 286).

Further, the counterproductive methods of development do not seek to engage in structural transformation. Rather, it is about re socializing, recalibrating youth, which in turn perpetuates a hierarchy of power and dominance employed by the global north. Unfortunately, this type of development rarely brings social change to communities in the south (Hartmann & Kwauk, 2012).

### **Sport For Development Best Practices**

In 2008, few traditional development agencies had embraced the use of sport with confidence. Notable exceptions included the United Nations (UN), International Labor Organization (ILO), the United Nations Children’s Fund, and the World Health Organization (WHO). The United Nations (UN), in 2005, development through peace and sport, while promoting sport as a vehicle that further contributed to programs, namely the Millennium Development Goals (Levermore, 2008a). Additionally, the ILO created their “Youth Sport Program” in an effort to improve skills including teamwork and leadership for employment through utilizing the transferable skills ascertained through sport. The UNICEF and WHO indicated that sport can advance physical and mental health of youth, and have developed joint ventures with NGOs, private interest groups, and community based organizations to promote involvement in sport (Levermore, 2008a).

Generally, the programs that employed evidence-based logic of development, including social reconciliation and social cohesion with suitable community engagement and monitoring and evaluation, existed in limited numbers. Throughout this literature review, it is asserted that sport itself does not ensure effective development procedures. According to Levermore (2008) there has been considerable progress in sport being used by a variety of different institutions as a tool to enhance existing development initiatives, whereby, this is on occasion realized by key policy makers. For example, the United Nation’s Year of Development and Peace through Sport in 2005 and the World Economic Forum in 2006, which included an event dedicated to SDP (Levermore, 2008).

Today, there are multitudes of SFD programs that exist throughout the world. For example, the United Kingdom devoted an entire office to international development as a component of hosting the

London 2012 Olympics. The committee promised to engage 12 million children in a total of 20 countries in education through sport (B. Kidd, 2011). Furthermore, programs are occurring not only in the global north. Ghana has advocated SFD programs in the African Union (B. Kidd, 2011). Additionally, Cuba has provided free training in sport and physical activity promoting community development by training teachers in a total of 82 countries (B. Kidd, 2011). B. Kidd (2011) encouraged academics and practitioners to continue to examine these programs through a critical lens.

B. Kidd (2011) noted that the most highly regarded programs are developed through best practices of development. These programs are developed through evaluating community needs and assets, with close ties to other interventions, specifically in health and education (Kidd, 2011). Examples of best practices are now discussed as offered by SDP IWG (2007) along with the SFD Framework by Schulenkorf (2011) and the agent of change.

### **Sport For Development and Peace International Working Group Secretariat**

Developed by the Sport For Development and Peace International Working Group (SDP IWG) Secretariat (2007), the selection of “best practice” programs or interventions was constructed through a literature review of multiple sport for development research. The SDP IWG included the following:

1. Scale: The size and sustainability of the program
2. How it addresses barriers?
3. Justification: What were the criteria for establishing the program?
4. Culturally specific (needs based): Is the program sensitive to specific local needs?
5. Any evidence of mainstreaming
6. Evidence and published material: availability of appropriate evidence
7. Gender: Is the program open, and sensitive to gender issues?
8. Disability: Is the program open to and adapted for persons with a disability?

### **Three Areas of Capital**

The category of scale stated in the SFD best practices above has been interpreted by this thesis researcher to encompass the Curado and Bontis (2007) work on the three areas of capital, including relational capital, structural capital, and human capital (e.g., p. 11):

1. Human capital, simply put, is defined as the knowledge engrained cognitively in all

employees (Serenko, 2007). The concept of human capital is defined as individual knowledge, the intellect of the distinctive human element (Curado & Bontis, 2007).

2. Structural capital is made up of the stock of knowledge that exists in the organization when the employees are not present. Structural capital exists in tangible forms in databases, filing cabinets, and more (Bontis et al., 2003).
3. Relational capital exists in the outside networks, which entails foremost knowledge about customers (Curado & Bontis, 2007).

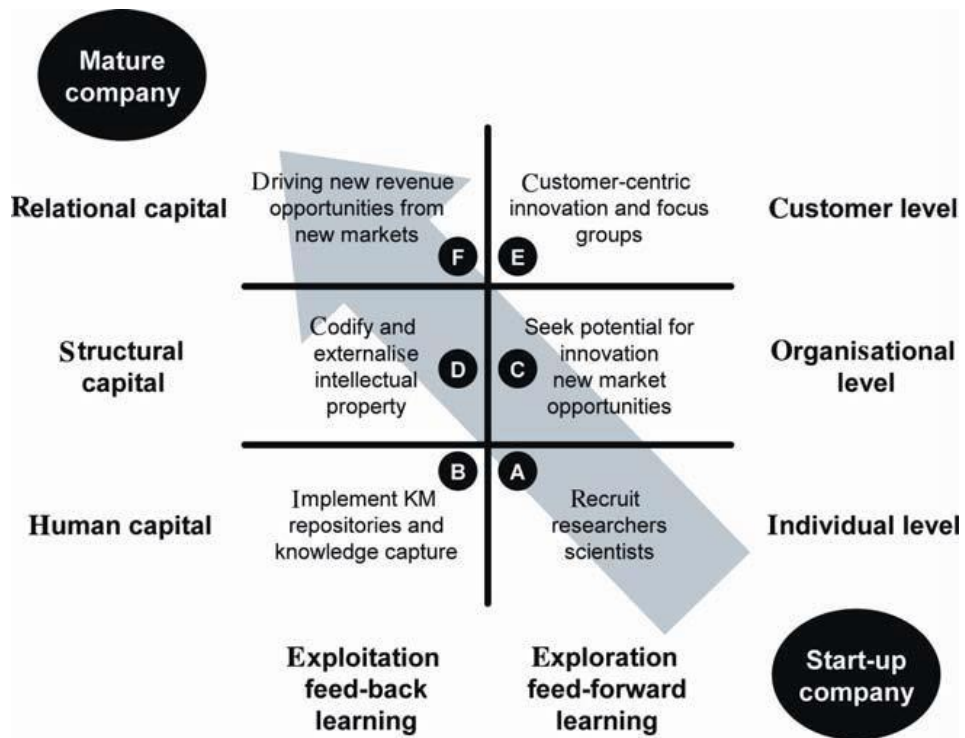


Figure 1. Curado and Bontis's (2007) MIC Matrix Model



### **Sport-In-Development Logic Model**

The category of mainstreaming stated above in the SFD best practices section was interpreted by this thesis researcher to be viewed from Coalter's (2006) Sport-in-Development Logic Model that "provided a framework for thinking about the establishment, development and management of sport-in-development organizations and programs" (p. 2). Coalter's (2006) Sport-in-development programs: A logic model included the following themes:

1. Aims
2. Consultation with community/stakeholders; and audit of community conditions/resources.
3. Aims (affirmed or revised)/objectives; and performance indicators.
4. Inputs
5. Outputs 1 [Staff training/development]
6. Outputs 2 (a) programs: sporting/non-sporting [Content/process]
7. Sporting inclusion; equity/target groups
8. Sporting outcomes; and skills competencies.
9. Intermediate outcomes; personal/social development; and information/understanding.
10. Impacts; and changed behaviors.

### **Sport For Development Program Checklist**

Kidd (2011) developed a checklist in order to augment effective SFD procedures when developing programming initiatives. This checklist involves the following:

1. Participants must feel that programs equate to their needs and that they have been conferred with in the design and execution in the initiative. Thereby, the program has directly involved the planned recipients of development. Participants must have authentic access (equipment, transportation) to initiatives (safe, personally valued, socially connected, morally/economically supported, personally/politically empowered).
2. Initiatives must ascertain skilled, knowledgeable professionals in the roles OF administrators, coaches, and teachers.
3. The benefits of sport participation/initiatives cannot be valued in isolation from

social/material conditions. To attain success, initiatives must be linked to other development programs, specifically in education/health/employment and youth development.

4. Programs must be sustainable and have a long-term individual/community impact.
5. Monitoring and evaluation must be suitable to the projected beneficiaries and outcomes. If the program is to be employed by outsider practitioners, the outcomes must be shared with the participants and published in open sources.

### **Best Practices in Strategic Planning for Community Empowerment**

Strategic planning for effective practices in community empowerment is an essential element of laying a foundation which will lead to sustainable, socioeconomic growth. According to Burnett (2006) this can be achieved through the construct of social capital in these communities. Further, Schulenkorf (2011) created a framework for strategic planning which is divided into three interrelated categories of sport event management, direct social impacts, and long-term social outcomes. Moreover, both researchers present unique strategic models to address the dearth in community empowerment and the socioeconomic state of sub-Saharan African communities.

According to Burnett (2006) social capital involves “the participation in needs based programmed mobilizes social capital through network functioning and individual empowerment” (p. 292). As such, it is a valuable strategy and resource to help address the state of poverty in Africa at the community level. In an application to the African situation with the destructed socio economic landscape in South Africa, the post-apartheid government’s strategies were based on the notion of social development (Burnett, 2006). Accordingly, social capital that exists in networks and relationships contributes to the “generation of social clustering and the integration of existing clusters or individuals who may engage in rewarding social relations that are status conferring” (Burnett, 2006, p. 292). At an individual level, social capital can result in the creation of social and emotional skills that move beyond societal status result in the individual(s) being viewed as more employable and possessing the ability to function in an environment where unemployment is high. Accordingly, being recognized as a coach or entering a leadership role provides opportunities for these individuals. It promotes connecting capital through the broadcasting of access or resources and assets that exist within the community that are highly significant. Moreover, an

NGO, such as the African organization under study has the opportunity to act as an asset in nurturing the generation of social capital at the community level through strategies initiatives. The idea is understood as being proactive and assisting the community at the local level. This further relates to the recruitment and collaborative efforts of strategic partners in community empowerment.

The SFD, or in this section the S4D Framework offered by Schulenkorf (2011) is divided into three interrelated categories of sport event management, direct social impacts, and long-term social outcomes. First, sport event management includes planning, organizing and implementing the S4D initiative. The outside change agents and local communities choose to engage and participate in development activities and attempt to achieve social outcomes and community empowerment goals (Schulenkorf, 2011). Through dynamic and mutual participation, local knowledge is combined with external professional knowledge, whereby Sugden (2006) as well as Stidder and Haasner (2007) argued that there is a specific set of procedures needed to employ a culturally relevant and expertly managed sport and event initiative. Thus, to achieve the desired outcomes for both engaged participants and the entire community, it is important to consider more than the just the direct impacts of the actual project and explore opportunities for sustaining, growing, and leveraging the sport initiative.

Second, participation in the SFD initiative results in direct social impacts that are rendered in the form of social practices. These practices include opportunities for engaged socializing, celebration, or progression in the form of skills and capacities. From the perspective of internal community stakeholders, sport initiatives have the potential to create social cohesion amongst groups by encouraging cooperation, learning and skill improvement (Gasser & Levinsen, 2004; Schulenkorf et al., 2011; Sugden, 2006).

Third, direct social implications may result in long-term social outcomes. Specifically, a variety of social experiences created at an event can be exploited to accomplish long-term social results including the development of intercommunity capacities and/or the formation of social unity (Schulenkorf, 2007). For example, meeting at a social event can result in long-term friendships or networks established which have the capacity to establish a considerable revolution in intercommunity relationships. Significantly, within this development sport and event activities are just the beginning, a tool to mobilize additional programs, which must be strategically employed and leveraged to accomplish broad social development outcomes (Misener & Mason, 2006; Sugden, 2006).

### **Silo Theory in Organizations**

The Silo mentality is defined by the Business Dictionary as

A mindset present when certain departments or sectors do not wish to share information with others at the same company. This type of mentality will reduce efficiency in the overall operation, reduce moral and may contribute to the demise of a productive company culture (page, 1).

According the literature, to combat the trickledown effect there are five steps that can be employed to break down the silos within an organization, including:

1. Work towards achieving a common goals
2. Motivate and incentive
3. Execute and measure
4. Collaborate and create (“The Silo Mentality: How to Break Down Barriers”, 2013)

To recommend that an organization become involved in all 4 of these traits promotes cross departmental communication and knowledge sharing (Gleenson, 2013). It is recommended that in order to create collaboration, knowledge and creativity management must make an effort to reduce meeting time, builds out small and accessible meeting rooms, implements a cross departmental training/education system, and encourages constructive feedback from outside departments (Gleeson, 2013).

### **The Agent of Change in Sustainable Development**

In this thesis proposal, being an “agent of change” is a best practice in SFD. This is because an agent of change is necessary to bring forth the elements to generate and sustain a SFD program. The concept of community participation has been showcased as an encouraging strategy for a project launch, community empowerment, and social development. Also, numerous authors advise internal stakeholders to establish creative and collaborative partnerships with likeminded businesses that can help oversee the process of change (Lawson, 2005; Naparstek, Dooley, & Smith, 1997). Schulenkorf (2010) described these outside stakeholders as “exterior parties who help communities establish contact, open negotiations and develop project for cooperation and sustainable development” (p. 119).

Midgley (1986) argued that within a range of normative environments such business, education, and sport change agents are an important element in the planning and execution stages in

development initiatives because they facilitate interaction and help promote a shared platform for collaboration between parties. From the perspective of community, the support of a change agent can help with group dynamics where the interaction between parties has, in the past, been hindered with tension and where communities have lacked access to human and financial resources (Stiefel & Pearse, 1982; Uruena, 2004).

Moreover, agents of change have become increasingly intertwined in effective community development initiatives because they assemble a cooperative where the individual members develop a culture of confidence and teamwork (Schulenkorf, 2011). Experienced agents can help provide the necessary leadership qualities to aid communities to garner resources and collaborate successfully (Ife, 1995; Lawson, 2005; Uruena, 2004). Kramer and Specht (1975) highlighted the importance of working with a community to cultivate effective intergroup processes and the methodological responsibilities of “identifying problem areas, analyzing causes, formulating plans, developing strategy and mobilizing the resources the necessary action” (p. 14).

Nevertheless, when projects are initiated by external agents there is the threat that they may administer an authoritative, controlling approach to management (Botes & van Rensburg, 2000; Stiglitz, 2002). The external actors may cultivate an attitude of “knowing what’s best” for the local community, which may lead to issues of internal stakeholder ideas being unappreciated (Midgley, 1986; Willmott, 1989). Avery (2004) spoke to such a management approach as “classical leadership” that seeks a prompt return on investment, generally in the formula of economic growth. Classical leadership methods generally do not understand the progressive global context and the “sustainable sociocultural” within and amongst community (Schulenkorf, 2011). Schulenkorf (2011) described that only “only a fruitful cooperation between communities and change agents can lead to the empowerment of people and groups that enhances individual and collective capacities, efficacy as well as social and economic justice and wellbeing” (p. 5). To fulfill these objectives, the change agent should not be an authoritative instrument but should be a supportive facilitator for programs and community networks (Kramer & Specht, 1975; Sanoff, 2000; Skinner, Zakus, & Cowell 2008).

To grasp a sustainable system of development, local communities must be empowered by periodically accepting an accumulative quantity of responsibilities (Schulenkorf, 2011). Change agents,

thus, must be prepared to shift responsibilities to the local community members as time passes. At a time when local community members can assume the capacity to deal with ongoing issues, compounding responsibilities may then be shifted. Schulenkorf outlines a philosophical approach, referred to as a gradual development process (e.g., p. 22).

The Model of Community Empowerment demonstrates that communities and agents of change possess fluctuating degrees of control of the numerous individual initiatives that comprise a portion of the total development program (Schulenkorf, 2011). As discussed above, change agents generally govern project and management procedures, while the amount of responsibility held by community actors is small. According to Schulenkorf (2011), in order to transform the source of authority and to attain community empowerment, “in a step by step process expert knowledge, skills and responsibilities and ultimately control needs to be transferred from the change agent to the empowered communities, who are expected to guide and lead projects long term” (p. 5).

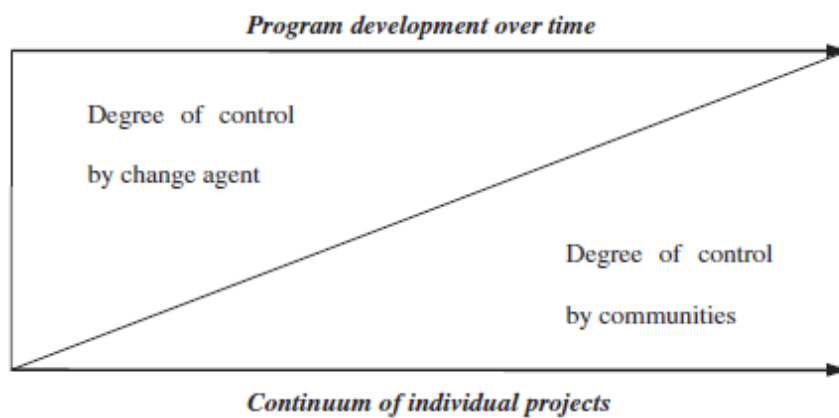


Figure 2. Schulenkorf's (2010) Model of Community Empowerment

### **Sustainability Theory**

This thesis proposal purports that sustainability underscores SFD programs with respect to viability and continuation of a program. This thesis proposal is, thus, framed with sustainability theory. Current streams of research have resulted in the growth of knowledge regarding the development of sustainability theory (Glavic & Lukman, 2007). The prominence of various sources of information, however, intensifies the expansion of sustainability terms and their definitions as employed by different researchers and organizations (Glavic & Lukman, 2007). This means that there are multiple views related to sustainability, such as ecological views, ethical investments, and societal principles. For the purpose of this thesis, the term sustainable development was utilized.

Sustainable development is presented as a process of evolution. A myriad of definitions are within reach, but none are definitive; yet, they all relate closely to the definition stated in Chapter One that was presented in 1987 by the World Commission on Environment and Development Brundtland Commission. This definition involves “development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability for future generations to meet their own needs” (Brundtland et al., 1987).

The Brundtland Commission definition of sustainable development offers a vision of the concept of continuation for an extended period of time, such as over generations (McIntyre & Murphy, 2011). The McIntyre and Murphy view is that the duality between the social and economic phenomena involves that “the sensibility and desirability of continuation depends critically on what, exactly, is to be continued and by whom” (p. 409). An application of this view to a business context brings forward questions concerning how to achieve sustainability within the various ideas and corporate strategies and policies, as none of the definitions, including the Brundtland Commissions definition of sustainability, provides guidelines on how to achieve a desired state of sustainable development.

### **Resource Based View Theory**

According to the resource based view (RBV) organizations may be observed from two angles: from the product angle and from the resource angle. The product side has been viewed from an economic perspective, and the resource side has fairly significant strategic repercussions in relation to competitive advantages and the utilization of assets in order to gain increased financial capital (Barney, 1991; Wernerfelt, 1984). The resource based view of the firm (Barney, 1991; Barney, Wright, & Ketchen,



2001; Penrose, 1959; Wernerfelt, 1984) clearly focused on the latter of the aforementioned product angles. The researchers argued that an organization has the ability to ascertain perpetual abnormal returns from their resources (including static resources, dynamic capabilities, and knowledge (Barney et al., 2001).

The author of this thesis proposal purports that resources underscore SFD programming, impacting viability and continuation. This research is, thus, framed with resource-based theory. Intangible resources have continuously existed in an organization's operations. The initial documentation of intangibles was discovered in 1986 by Lawrence T. Dicksee (Wu, 2005) and Kenneth Galbraith for the concept of intellectual capital in 1969 (Bontis, 1998). It has been only recently that this discipline has gained widespread acceptance (Serenko & Bontis, 2004). Accordingly, the significance of revealing figures associated with intangibles has also progressed (Bontis, 2003; Botosan, 1997).

Additionally, research related to intangibles is limited by a significant issue: the lack of shared technology. Further, there is a gap in research and practical implementation that exists in the area of creating shared terminology (Bontis, 2001). In accordance, this gap limits the research process, and thus far there is still no widespread shared definition (Andriessen, 2004; Bontis, Dragonetti, Jacobsen, & Roos, 1999; Molbjerg-Jorgensen, 2006; Sveiby, 1997).

The research conducted by Kristandl and Bontis (2007) is driven by the lack of consent over the definition of intangibles and related terminology such as intangible assets and intellectual capital. What's more, there is a plethora of definitions that describe what intangibles are, which in turn is both progressive and detrimental. This is due to the extensive amount of definitions describing the nature of the concept while there is no mutually shared definition (Kristandl & Bontis, 2007).

Habersam and Piber (2003) asserted that it will be some time before there is a shared consensus on the definition. As Johanson (2000) detailed, similar intangibles could be viewed in a different manner. Meanwhile, Kristandl and Bontis (2007) argued that

intangibles consist of objective facts, conscious cognitive interpretations and unconscious interpretations. Therefore, although there might be a chance for a common definition and classification of intangible assets and intangible investments for accounting and statistical purposes, a common basis for intangible phenomena as cognitive or unconscious structures and processes in a

firm might be unlikely (p. 1512).

According to RBV of an organization, these resources must be:

1. Valuable: Firm resources have the ability to generate sustainable value for an organization.
2. Rare: Resources must be heterogeneously circulated across organizations, and not simply attainable to competitors; held by a low number of organizations.
3. Inimitable: Or low inimitably (Wade and Hulland, 2004) of assets in order to guard them from being duplicated by competitors.
4. No substitutable (nontransferable): Competitors must possess equal assets in order to substitute an otherwise nontransferable resource.
5. The VRIN (valuable, rare, inimitable, non-substitutable): Gages indicate if an organization holds these strategic resources, and to what extent they are protected (Wernerfelt, 1984).

Additional traits and necessities for resources are:

6. Appropriable: They should have the ability to produce rents surpassing the cost of resources (see Wode & Hulland, 2004).
7. Immobile: It should not be conceivable to ascertain them on factor markets (Wade & Hulland, 2004). They contain all assets, abilities, organizational processes, firm traits, data, and knowledge that an organization may engage to advance its performance (Barney, 1991) and are effective in reacting towards market's opportunities and threats (Wake & Hulland, 2004). They are heterogeneously circulated across organizations (Barney, 1991). The variances between the organizations are static over time (Barney, 1991).

Furthermore, homogeneously circulated and or unbalanced dissimilarities in resources do not provide a company with perpetual abnormal returns (Barney, 1991). This proved to be true in static as well as dynamic markets (Barney et al., 2001; Eisenhardt & Martin, 2000; Fiol, 2001) where the capability to constantly alter and adjust (and seek chance to produce abnormal returns) is considered as an organizational resource. This is comparable to the aptitude to guard resources and employ resources in a static market, such as human capital or organizational capital. An organization is not necessarily required to guard competitive advantages; however, it must have the capability to maintain a consistent direction of impermanent advantages in a dynamic market (Barney et al., 2001; Fiol, 2001).

The

RBV of an organization is one of the most widely acclaimed theoretical frameworks in strategic management (Barney, 1991; Eisenhardt & Martin, 2000; Wernerfelt, 1984). Fundamental to this framework is the perspective that organizations diverge in their resource viewpoints, and that such heterogeneity is a basis for performance variety amongst organizations (Peteraf, 1993).

It is generally acknowledged that the knowledge based view (KBV) is a modern addition to the RBV framework (Curado & Bontis, 2007; Roos, 1998; Sveiby, 1997). The researchers argued the KBV resource as the most fundamental strategic asset. Therefore, they encourage further investigation (Curado & Bontis, 2007). The conceptualization of knowledge as an asset created the theoretical correlation between the RBV and KBV of the organization (Curado & Bontis, 2007). This modern and comprehensive view continued to cultivate the idea of organizations as cultures. Accordingly, the areas of knowledge management, organizational learning, and intellectual capital concern themselves with the processes of organizations as cultures to be progressed (Curado & Bontis, 2007).

The contemporary idea of intellectual capital was cultivated as an accounting proxy of the variance found among the market and book values of publicly traded firms (Bontis, 1996, 2003; Brooking, 1997; Edvinsson, 2000; Joia, 2000; O'Donnell et al., 2004; Pike, Rylander, & Roos, 2002). Today, the intellectual capital of an organization is considered an extremely prominent resource (Alvarez & Busenitz, 2001; Bontis, 2002; Cabrita & Bontis, in press; Cohen & Pruzac, 2001; Guthrie, 2001; Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 2002; O'Donnell, Ashur, & Bontis, 2006; SubbaNarasimha, 2001) that is regarded as the most valued and most significant asset of the firm (Stewart, 1997; Wiig, 1997). Further, intellectual capital is an immaterial resource that is viewed as a characteristic of holding a competitive advantage (Birchall & Tovstiga, 1999; Bontis & Fitz-enz, 2002; Caddy, Guthrie, & Petty, 2001; Davenport & Prusak, 2000; Sánchez, Chaminade, & Dlea, 2000) for countries as well (Bontis et al., 2000; 2004).

Bontis, Crussan, & Hulland (2002) argued that intellectual capital signified the “stock” of knowledge that occurred in a firm. Intellectual capital can be generalized to include all organizational knowledge, implied and obvious, distinct and shared. The development of this “stock” of knowledge in an organization is the imperative for the knowledge management researchers (Bontis, 2002; Bontis, Serenko, & Biktimirov, 2006; Choo & Bontis, 2002). However, stock values in intellectual capital do not adjust immediately, but are compiled through continuous investments (Ariely, 2003; Bontis & Girardi, 2000;

Dierickx & Cool, 1989).

What's more, there are numerous categories of capital; that being said, the division of human capital, structural capital, and relational (customer) capital is prominent in literature and was first proposed in the mid-1990s (Bontis, 1996; Edvinsson & Sullivan, 1996; Petrash, 1996; Saint-Onge, 1996). Human capital, simply put, is defined as the knowledge engrained cognitively in all employees (Bontis & Serenko, 2007). The concept of human capital is defined as individual knowledge, the intellect of the distinctive human element (Curado & Bontis, 2007). Hudson (1993) describes human capital as equating from an individual's implicit knowledge. This human capital resides most notably in the high ranking management and in employees that are in specialized areas that may be influential in the success of the firm. Structural capital is made up of the stock of knowledge that exists in the organization when the employees are not present. Structural capital exists in tangible forms in databases, filing cabinets and so on. (Bontis et al., 2001). Furthermore, relational capital exists in the outside networks, which entails foremost knowledge about customers (Bontis et al., 2001).

In this thesis, SFD has been positioned as a social movement within CSR that is a necessary component when working towards sustainability within communities. Sustainability has been defined, along with understanding on the framework of Resource-based theory that underscores this research. It is noted that SFD is growing in the field of sport management. The concept of SFD, however, is not aligned with the common North American focus on profit-making. Critical theory is, thus, used to underscore alternative social views within sport management.

### CHAPTER 3: METHOD

The purpose of this thesis research was to examine SFD best practices in the context of an organization in Africa. This research sought to advance knowledge on SFD. In particular, the knowledge focused on the development of understandings for the particular SFD program; as well, the research aimed, in part, to advance the development of theory on SFD. This chapter outlines the research underlying assumptions. This chapter outlines the underlying assumptions, the worldview, SFD in Zambia, Africa, the AODP, case study research, the research questions, the purposeful sample/participation, biases in case research, trust-building and rapport, data collection and analysis including document collection, in-depth interviews, observations, and reflexivity.

#### Underlying Assumptions

The first underlying assumption is that the state of sport management currently lacks a critical thrust in the discipline. Frisby (2005) argued that if scholars were to completely grasp all elements of sport management, research needed to be performed from multiple paradigms. According to Frisby:

The paradigms we operate from as researchers, whether it is positivism, pragmatism, interpretivism, critical social science, post modernism, or a combination of these paradigms, shape the questions we ask, the methods we use, and the degree to which our findings will have an impact on society (p. 2).

Further, the way researchers construct the world around them will be altered drastically if they rely too heavily on any paradigm. Frisby (2005) argued not for the use of one specific paradigm to be *the* overruling dominant force, but to consider the use of multiple paradigms.

The second underlying assumption followed the position of Frisby (2005). She indicated that there were far too few manuscripts that make use of critical theory. This thesis proposal, thus, highlights the importance of critical theory and employed multiple perspectives as fundamental to the growth of a healthy discipline.

The third underlying assumption stemmed from a belief by this author that SFD was a reflection of our larger society. This implied that the societal values were reflected within societal programs. In order to continue the growth of a cause, a society must reflect similar trends. Thereby, irrespective of the importance placed upon this area of research by those involved in the field of sport management, society

must also place a similar interest on exploring these altruistic or socially conscious narratives. Further, growth or changes in the direction of the corporate powers of the world reflect the interest of society at large; as such, change will come from within these structures rather from external interest.

The fifth underlying assumption is that the author dismissed an objective reality where meaning existed apart from a conscious mind. There is no intrinsic meaning that exists in relation to an object outside of the human mind. Moreover, meaning is ascribed through interaction between the subject and the object.

Finally, the sixth underlying assumption is that the author emphasizes the importance of qualitative research from the perspective of de constructivism or postmodernism. However, the importance of providing quantitative evidence in SFD programs is essential to advancing the discipline from the perspective of western investors. This is important because donor organizations often want tangible evidence that these programs are effective in nourishing change. This is still an area of SFD that is in its infancy as discussed; there are still no direct conceptual linkages between sport and development.

What's more, in order to be successful, organizations that employ sport as a method to ignite social change in a given community must branch out and build relationships with other organizations with similar development goals. Organizations must work together to gather resources and build capacity in the community through cooperation. In order for SFD efforts to be taken seriously by legitimate development agencies, advocates must consider literature from broader development studies.

### **Worldview**

Epistemology outlines "the nature of knowledge, its possibility, scope and general basis" (Crotty, 1998, p. 8). Crotty details that "epistemology is concerned with providing a philosophical grounding for deciding what kind of knowledge is possible and how we can ensure that it is both adequate and legitimate" (p. 10). It is through this understanding that it is critical to select, clarify and validate the methodological view that is utilized in this study.

Deconstructionism dismisses an objectivist view of human knowledge. Accordingly, the author of this thesis believes that there is no objective truth that exists independent of the human mind. Crotty (1998) explains

there is no objective truth or meaning that comes into existence in and out of our engagement with the realities of this world. There is no meaning without a

mind. Meaning is not discovered, but constructed. In this understanding of knowledge, it is clear that different people construct meaning in different ways, even in relation to the same phenomenon. Isn't this precisely what we find when we move from one era to another? In this view of things, subject and object emerge as partners in the generation of meaning (p. 8–9).

Further, Crotty (1998) details the parallels between phenomenological beliefs and deconstructionism.

Moreover, the author of this thesis holds a theoretical perspective of phenomenology which is well suited to the constructionist epistemology described above. The theoretical perspective of phenomenology and the nature of this concept will be described in the following section of this thesis.

### **Phenomenology**

Phenomenology is a theoretical perspective that produces knowledge relating to the nature of human experience (Hessi-Biber & Leavy, 2005). Further, a phenomenological study attempts to analyze the “lived experience” of an individual (Creswell, 2007; Daly, 2007). The objective of a phenomenological study is to “understand and describe the participants’ experience of their everyday world as they see it” (Daly, 2007, p. 98).

### **Critical Theory**

Underscoring the work on SFD in this thesis was the concept of critical theory. This theory questions, “how can we change from a system that values endless profit seeking and materialism to [a system] where core values are community, caring for environment, creating and growing things and personal development” (Roddick, 2000, p. 70). Accordingly, this section chronicles alternative views of sport management that support human services and prosocial forces, and in particular SFD, in the discipline.

Chelladurai (1992) acknowledged the discrepancy issue within the discipline, specifically, both the management of participant sport and management of spectator sport, whereby, the fundamental difference between the management of human services, or participant sport, versus entertainment services, or spectator sport, is evident. He argued that there is a need to recognize and embrace this division while keeping clear of championing one service as greater than the other. Furthermore, there is a need to embrace multiplicity and integration within the discipline or risk separating into different fields. Chelladurai

believed “there will come a time where our fields have grown broader and richer and be able to stand on their own. Until that time, let us work together at integration. There is strength in unity” (p. 218).

Huczynski (1994) cautioned that many sport management faculty are gatekeepers of prevailing managerial theory and facilitate these principles through publishing likeminded manuscripts. This could prove to be hazardous because gatekeepers can circumvent alternative approaches from becoming accepted in sport management programs. What’s more, postsecondary institutions are places where students come to train to think critically and make constructive offerings to our society. However, if faculty themselves are publishing manuscripts with seemingly dominant, overriding ways of thinking, this can be problematic. According to Frisby (2005), the paradigms in which we as academics have operated whether it is positivism, pragmatism, interpretivism, critical social science, post modernism, or a combination of these paradigms, shape the questions we ask, the methods we use, and the degree to which our findings will have an impact on society (p. 2).

Frisby (2005) described paradigms as much broader than theories while including the epistemological, ontological, and methodological assertions made as academics. Further, the construction of the world around us will be altered drastically if anyone relies too heavily on any paradigm. Frisby argued not for the use of one specific paradigm to be *the* overruling dominant force, but to consider the use of multiple paradigms and that there are far too few manuscripts that make use of critical theory. Conversely, she theorized that sport sociologists have made an effort to examine sport on a critical level. However, this presented its own set of challenges, as their research was largely societal rather than an organizational level of analysis.

Frisby’s (2005) argument was that if scholars are to completely grasp all elements of sport management research then research needs to be performed from multiple paradigms. Frisby hypothesized that the absence of critical theoretic tendencies is a result of the training scholars receive as researchers. The majority of sport management researchers utilize a positivist perspective to evaluate significant aspects of the field. Frisby reflected on whether training has prepared researchers to ask questions using a critical lens in order to use the types of mixed methods studies that benefit this approach. What’s more, she reflected on whether scholars have been given the skills to display their findings beyond traditional academic outlets so



the research will have a profound impact. Further, Alvesson and Deetz (2000) argued that criticalists view management as an activity that is messy, ambiguous, political, and fragmented, and they believe that conceptualizing it as a technical function involving planning, organizing, coordinating, and controlling fails to capture the essence of what managers actually do (pp. 5–6).

Moreover, as contributors to this young discipline, Frisby questioned whether one should “pit instrumental and humanitarian goals against one another? Isn’t it possible that correcting injustices and empowering people can also improve organizational performance and the bottom line?” (p. 6). Hums (2010) addressed this complex question, referring to it as the debate among the Temple (the spirit of sport) and the agora (the marketplace) of sport, or what Martinkova (2006) refers to as the debate between conscious and the commerce. Further, Hums highlighted the importance of teaching sport management students to think critically and to promote community engagement.

Amis and Silk (2005) argued, “A healthy sport management is one that is constantly questioning and challenging itself” (p. 355). Without arguing for a complete restoration of the field of sport management, the authors suggest that what comprises the central focus of researchers is a rather narrow conceptualization of the field; thereby scholars are limited in their ability to critically evaluate sport industries and institutions. Moreover, the authors reaffirm the significance of Frisby’s 2004 Zeigler award for her address in paradigmatic plurality. Amis and Silk foresee

a set of not necessarily complementary vectors—messier, challenging environments in which competing ontological, epistemological, and political positions exist alongside one another. This, we believe, will expand our intellectual horizons and offer the additional theoretical and practical insights that our rapidly developing field requires (p. 356).

Amis and Silk purported that “sport is dominated by hyper commercialism enterprises and the universalization of western liberal democracy as the final form of human government” (p. 357). Accordingly, there has been an evolution of the corporate university in which post-secondary education developed into a progressively commercialized basis of profit for corporate interest.

Frisby (2005) offers a parallel analysis, voicing the necessity for a more critical sport

management that moves past the conventional exploration for ever more proficient methodologies. Frisby supported empowering individuals by tackling injustices through the advancement of social change. In utilizing these strategies, she reverberates Hinings and Greenwood's (2002) research on organizations that challenge the consequences of managerial and policy-making practice. Frisby (2005) encouraged the conceptualization of sport management in a wider political, economic, and ideological context and be motivated with revealing examples of inequality and intervening in local communities. Currently, these concerns are secondary and far from the inner focus of our field of study. Furthermore, the professionals and academics that tackle these issues are "critical citizens whose collective knowledge and actions presuppose specific visions of public life, community and moral accountability" (Amis & Silk, 2005, p. 358).

The potential of this type of research was demonstrated by Frisby (2005) through examining community-based recreation opportunities for low-income women in British Columbia, Canada. Frisby and her colleagues undoubtedly presumed without proof the norm of positivist research, utilizing a feminist participatory action-based research methodology. This methodology empowered the participants through cooperation and co-construction of knowledge throughout the entire research process. The research style implemented by Frisby et al. made an impactful contribution to a field to connect with those directly affected by the actions of organizational and governmental policy makers (Amis & Silk, 2005). Furthermore, the sub discipline of SFD could be well served to conduct research using a similar approach. Thereby, the power relations and inequality that define the ongoing process of development led by organizations in the global north could be addressed in sport-for-development programming.

Frisby (2005) reiterated this state by arguing "too often our work in sport management has been presented as neutral and value-free, with little regard for the historical, social, political and cultural context in which the world takes place" (p. 6). Frisby (2005) supported the use of critical social science (CSS), citing the lack of focus in sport management research. It is believed that "critical science can play an emancipatory role for managers in much the same way that it can for any group of human beings by increasing their awareness of capital accumulation pathologies, refractions and latent sources of social control" (Nord & Jermier, 1992, p. 217). What's more, Frisby argued that this context was illustrated through unbalanced power relations that are historically ingrained. Thus, her research is admittedly biased

in an effort to challenge these overriding ways of thinking and acting which reinforces those in control. Frisby positioned critical social science as “providing a provocative, illuminating way of examining the nature and consequences of managerial action, or in action through transformative redefinition” (Frisby, 2005, p. 8).

Additionally, Zeigler (2007) advocated sport academics to bring awareness to the power of social forces. Further, he warned researchers to evade constricted academic approaches and to strive to widen teaching and researcher agendas. Zeigler argued that the global society is moving to a new distinct period of postmodernism and that it is important to address the potential consequences of continuing on the current path of research. As cited previously the advancement of commercial sport over the past several decades has flourished like never before. The sport industry, thus, has clearly moved down a path fueled by capitalistic economic theory that stressed increasing profits, winning by any cost, and which sometimes results in violence (Zeigler, 2007).

Further, Zeigler (2007) stated that “any intelligent, concerned citizen can reasonably ask: what evidence do we have that sport as a social institution is really making a positive contribution to our society?” (Zeigler, 2007, p. 7) However, many people within society see no issue with this dominance; as such, professional athletes are happy earning millions of dollars and may not recognize this problem, nor do many of the sport management students (Zeigler, 2007).

Zeigler (2007) promoted that it was the duty of sport academics to allocate resources to develop alternative theories for sport management. Specifically, he spoke to research that focused on providing sport and physical activity for society at large. In today’s society, the large majority of the population is not sufficiently involved in habitual physical activity implemented to assist them in living healthy, active lifestyles. Accordingly, these same individuals are experiencing negative physical challenges of great magnitude. The objective of nurturing the elite athlete, while struggling to maintain a role promoting the public health sector is an ongoing debate within the discipline (Zeigler, 2007).

It is apparent that sport management academics have “blindly followed the uncritical popular wisdom that sport is a good thing for society to encourage and more sport is even better” (Pope & Nauright, 2009, p. xx). Furthermore, Earle Zeigler (2007) posed the question

what are we in sport management helping to promote and exactly why are we

doing it? I fear that we are simply going along with the seemingly inevitable tide. In the process, we have become pawns to the prevailing sport establishment by riding the wrong horse (p. xviii).

In conclusion, this section reviewed the importance of critical, cross-disciplinary approaches while exploring multiplicity, pluralism, and integration in the sport management discipline. Accordingly, literature in sport-for-development was underscored by specific researchers who challenged prevailing managerial theory and attempted to breathe life to a discipline overshadowed by hyper commercialism.

The presentation now moves to provide an overview of the case that was the focus of this research. This thesis involved an exploration of a case study of SFD best practices in the context of an AODP. Specifically, the case context involved SFD in Zambia, Africa. Next, the two guiding research questions are presented, along with a discussion on biases in case research, trust building and rapport, and then the data collection, and analysis methodology.

### **Development in Zambia, Africa**

The African organization AODP under study was active in the country of Zambia, located within the continent of Africa. The country itself is ranked low as 167th in the UN Human Development Index, and the population of the area is estimated to be roughly 137,000 (reference removed for confidentiality). The country's ethnic group is mostly comprised of Native African's—accounting for 99.5% of the population (CIA, 2013). There were 11 different Bantu languages spoken in Zambia (CIA, 2013). Bemba is the official language with 30% of the population speaking this language (CIA, 2013). A total of 80% of the population, however, is said to be literate in English (CIA, 2013). The largest city in Zambia is Lusaka, with a population of 1.4 million (CIA, 2013). Maramba is the capital of the southern province, the town is largely a tourist hub for the nearby international tourist site, Victorian Falls.

Additionally, Zambia has a young population within the country, with 46% of its people between the ages of 1-14 (CIA, 2013). The time spent attending school is generally 7–8 years (CIA, 2013). The life expectancy is low and is generally 50 years of age (CIA, 2013). As of 2009, an estimated 13.5% of the population of Zambia is infected with HIV/AIDS—the 6th highest rate in the world, with 45,000 deaths alone attributed to the disease in 2009 (CIA, 2013). Further, as of 2005, more than 23% of the population ages 15–24 were unemployed (CIA, 2013).

The school system in Zambia encompasses government, private and community schools. For instance, in previous research on two Zambian cities, Kamwala and Chawama, sport was noted as a component of curricular and extracurricular activities in each of these schools (Lindsey & Gratton, 2011). Also, churches in both communities employed sport programs for young people involved in the church schools (Lindsey and Gratton, 2011). Beyond the government and private schools in Zambia, all organizations recognized by as local stakeholders in SFD “belonged to the broad class of civil society organization” (Lindsey & Gratton, 2011, p. 99). The majority of these organizations were created within the past decade. This increase in civil society organizations was suggestive of the dissolution of the government of Zambia since the introduction of neo-liberal Structural Adjustment Programs by the World Bank and International Monetary Fund in the ‘80s (Banda, 2011).

The equating “institutional gap” which civil society organizations attempted to tackle has only been widened due the lack of interest in SFD, until recent attention given by government policy and programming in Zambia (Banda, 2010). Yet, this time period coincided with the general “international expansion of SFD” (B. Kidd, 2008; Levermore & Beacom 2009).

### **The African Organization Development Project**

In this thesis the case was a development organization that was utilizing sport within its strategy. The case was a program conceptualized by a major northern organization and applied within Africa. This organization has operated in Zambia since 2005. Further, the organization provided the “largest on-the-ground initiative, including volunteers, exploration and Internship projects throughout the continent of Africa” (referenced removed for confidentiality). This award winning organization has focused on sustainable development (reference removed for confidentiality). This specific project promoted sports coaching and physical education in under resourced schools while focusing efforts on improving the lives of the youth of this generation (reference removed for confidentiality).

This organization outline the project highlights of the case (from the volunteer perspective) as follows: (a) Mentor very enthusiastic and often-talented children in sports and games at resident schools (b) Use your talents and knowledge to develop the coaching practices of community sports leaders (c) Empower groups of a variety of ages, through sports to feel empowered, many from very impoverished homes (d) Assist with performing basic exercises/physiotherapy therapy with the occupants at Maramba

Old People's Home (f) Work on building and construction assignments within the community (g) Interact with children in after school clubs, recreational activities and deliver an escape from daily life.

Further, volunteers spend mornings in local schools working in sports initiatives, administering physical education (PE) lessons to students and teachers alike. Volunteers offered practical and theoretical application that appeared on examinations in school. Physical education was enshrined in the national curriculum; however, it was not commonly implemented within the schools. Further, to ensure sustainability of these applications, it is important to teach the local teachers the necessary skills to be able to operate courses independent of the AODP staff.

The AODP stated that their volunteers work in training teams alongside community partners in a variety of coaching applications. Volunteers have been involved in youth leagues for an extended period of time (reference removed for confidentiality). The wealth of skills held by international volunteers added a rich variety of practical applications. Volunteers worked directing physiotherapy (basic exercises) at the Old People's Home, including offering games, performing basic physical exercises, and helping to perform routine medical check-ups, and offered health discussions with the residents (reference removed for confidentiality).

The AODP stated that the volunteers engaged in HIV education in sport initiatives with community teams to provide HIV education in sport workshop. This involved relay games, team building games, answering questions, and football matches. During these activities volunteers used their skills as a sports coach and had the chance to enlighten youths in HIV awareness (reference removed for confidentiality). Generally, for the young boys, a kinesthetic learning method was a highly effective teaching technique (reference removed for confidentiality). The AODP described that the volunteers brought their skills from around the world, along with knowledge of a variety of different sports.

Volunteers scheduled time to interact with community members and provided theoretical and practical application of their knowledge of these sports in order to offer a broad range of practical application of sport for youth. Due to limited class space available in the region, the majority of youth did not receive a full day of classes. Thereby, AODP partnered with professional builders and members of the community to engage in building and construction projects to create new schools in the area (reference removed for confidentiality).

Volunteers have been involved in home based care, aiding those who are too sick and/or cannot afford a hospital or clinic fees (reference removed for confidentiality). Further, the AODP has assisted communities in creating sustainable farming programs in the acquisition of land, seeds, and tools, and has aided planting and harvesting crops (reference removed for confidentiality).

After school reading clubs were operating; volunteers helped students with literacy and reading skills of the children (reference removed for confidentiality). Volunteers helped the students by teaching them phonics, spelling, pronunciation, and with general reading techniques. Volunteers taught art club lesson plans using their initiative and creative ideas. Volunteers helped the young adults of the community improve their literacy rate and thus their chances of employment; additionally, they gain a unique insight into the local culture through socialization. Overall, the reading club aims to improve understanding of written and oral English as well as basic mathematics (reference removed for confidentiality).

The study group program facilitated grade 9 pupils from various schools throughout the city for a structured study group led by volunteers (reference removed for confidentiality). The program sought to help the underprivileged children gain a greater grasp of subjects taught in class as well as tackle subjects that were not offered within the curriculum (reference removed for confidentiality). The aforementioned section detailed the day-to-day initiatives undertaken by volunteers; the following section now addresses bias in case research.

### **Qualitative Reasoning: Case Study Research, Document Collection and Analysis**

The following section is an outline of the qualitative research methodology used to complete the thesis by the researcher. I have outlined the steps taken prior to conducting research, and have ensured that they are supported by the literature, in order to ensure I utilized techniques to enhance the quality and credibility of qualitative analysis. This section now outlines the data collection method including the use of case study research, the practice of triangulation and the steps taken to analyze the findings of this thesis.

This thesis involved the application of case study research methodology. Flyvberd (2006) argued that case study research “is a necessary and sufficient method for certain important research tasks in the social sciences, and it is a method that holds up well when compared to other methods in the gamut of social science research methodology” (p. 241). According to Yin “case study research is a method with

strong philosophical underpinnings, which provides a framework for exploratory research in real-life settings” (2009, p. 27).

The Zambian Africa case was selected for a multitude of reasons. First, this organization was an award winning African development project that has excellent reviews from past volunteers. Second, this organization had management personnel that involved all English speaking individuals. Third, the country and city that was selected was safe, stable and ensured the safety of this researcher.

Prior to entering the environment and becoming involved with the AODP, this researcher understood the significance of triangulating data in order to ensure the trustworthiness of the data. Academia supported the use of triangulation as a lens for the variety of ways the case is being examined (Liamputtong, 2009). Further, Yin (2009) outlined that there are two major strengths of triangulation that include the confirmation and completeness of research (Yin, 2009). What’s more, triangulation strengthens evidence and protocol essential for gaining access and creditability in research activity (Yin, 2009). The author of this thesis, thus, utilized triangulation as a means to strengthen the data collection and analysis process. In this thesis, the triangulation included (a) in-depth interviews, (b) observations and (c) documents.

Further, this thesis utilized an in-field situation to conducting that qualitative research. This method was supported by Sparkes and Smith’s (2014) statement that to achieve the goal of credibility in research there are a multitude of techniques that can be applied, which include the following: prolonged engagement; persistent observation and triangulation.

Patton (1999) states that a common misinterpretation regarding the process of triangulation is that the purpose is to reveal that different data sources or inquiry approaches produce essentially the same result. However, Patton (1999) argues that in actuality the purpose is to test for such consistency. Different categories of data may produce somewhat diverse results because different types of inquiry are “sensitive to different real world nuances” (Patton, 1999, p. 1193). Thereby, an understanding of irregularities in findings across different kinds of data can be illuminative. Accordingly, Patton explains that:

Finding such inconsistencies ought not to be viewed as weakening the credibility of results, but rather as offering opportunities for deeper insight into the relationship between inquiry approach and the phenomenon under study (p. 1193).



During the examination of the AODP best practices outlined by the SDP IWG (2007) triangulation was essential to establishing confirmation of the data collected during my field research with the AODP. For example, through conducting in-depth interviews, I was informed that the project was the most successful chapter of the AODP. Further, the success was also attributed to the environment that the AODP operated within as outlined by a senior staff member (personal communication, 2013). What's more, documents collected pertaining to the size of the city, the integrated leadership and being the only northern based development project all resulted in a sustainable project (reference removed for confidentiality). Finally, through on-site observations, I witnessed a great deal of goodwill on behalf of the community towards the chapter of the AODP (Journal, 2013). Once again, the triangulated methods used in this example demonstrated that the data achieved increased trustworthiness.

I also gained knowledge of the nature of the development objectives through the process of multiple data collection methods. For instance, document collection outlined that the fostering of sustainable community development through conservation-based initiatives was a strategic approach best practices (reference removed for confidentiality). Moreover, the examination of organizational documents outlined that the organization believes giving food directly to the community would conflict with their goal to work sustainably (reference removed for confidentiality). Moreover, there was a unique challenge for the AODP under study to enter these communities to activate or recreate a sport culture where a large portion of population is occupied by the daily struggles of life. This point was reaffirmed through in-depth interviews with a popular community leader (Participant 2, 2013). Finally, through on-site observations, I witnessed countless examples of the challenges faced by the community to access basic items such as food, clothing or education which inherently resulted in difficulties focusing on personal development (Journal, 2013).

The interviews were conducted with participants near the end of the duration of my experience with the AODP. Literature states that trust and relationship building is an essential element extracting truthful, rich data from participants (Liamputtong, 2009). This is particularly relevant when interviewing community leaders, as the researcher spent every day working and interacting with these individuals. By the end of the volunteer experience, I had established meaningful relationships with these individuals and thereby I was granted the opportunity to conduct interviews, as such. Further, prior to the

conducting of interviews I had provided the participants with the questions and any clarifications involving language and expectations. The interviews were conducted in a private setting, away from the organization in order to ensure anonymity. As a result, I was given rich, honest and personal data that was essential to my thesis.

In this case study, methodological considerations that led to the strengthening of the trustworthiness of the data included the fact this researcher interviewed both community leaders as well as AODP staff. As stated by Sparkes and Smith (2014) this method of data source triangulation is an effective tool to strengthen the research. Thereby, the author focused on this method to provide a balanced perspective through the lens of local community members and northern actors that inherently resulted in strong interview trustworthiness.

This research involved the following steps for site observations. Patton (1999) advised researchers to be mindful during times when one is collecting observational data. As a novice researcher, I utilized these techniques and attempted to create a heightened sense of awareness when conducting on-site observations. For instance, during times when I was observing and recording data I attempted to fully commit myself to this task. In doing so, I hoped to acquire rich data which helped build upon the trustworthiness of my research.

Moreover, the persistent on site observation methods utilized by the researcher was another technique used to establish credibility in the research. The researcher made every attempt to integrate himself within the community and adhere to the process of persistent observation of activities, behaviors and events within the context of the community as well as the AODP. For instance, the researcher was persistent in his efforts to build trust and meaningful relationships with community members in order to create a deep understanding of individuals, organizations and institutions that had relationships with the AODP.

What's more, the credibility of the research was ensured through prolonged engagement in the environment. As such, the author of this thesis spent the maximum amount of time (allowed by the AODP) engaged in the environment in order to ensure the observations were credible, thereby validating information obtained during the process of journal writing. The steps utilized to generate the journal included the following: many times I reflected upon my experiences during the evening after my daily

responsibilities. Due to the demanding physical nature of my position as the physical education teacher, I was often preoccupied with the responsibilities on my position. That being said, I did carry my cell phone with me everywhere I went and wrote down key words that I could expand upon during my reflection time in the latter portion of the day. Moreover, originally the author was allotted a 2 month time period to collect data; however the researcher requested an extra 4 weeks of time in order to prolong the experience in Zambia working with the community and the AODP.

During the process of data analysis, the coding scheme relied upon multiple reading passes of the data. Each pass focused on “determining what’s significant” (Patton, 2002, 463). Each pass focused on determining what is significant (Patton, 2002, p. 463) with respect to the element of focus. This meant that I read the data multiple times searching for comments that related to each of the SFD IWG and Kidd (2011) framework elements. Each element was the focus of an individual pass. There were twelve reading passes in total. Each pass aided to develop a chart of data on the individual elements. This meant that coding was completed in a systematic manner (Patton, 2002). The coding sought wording, sentences and patterns for each element.

The first step in the process for completing data analysis involved a rigorous exercise whereby I first produced the numerous best practices outlined by the SDP IWG (2007) based on the multiple topics of focus such as scale and sustainability, program barriers, justification for establishing the program, evidence of mainstreaming, published material, gender issues and disability. After creating subheadings for the established best practices for each category or element, I began sift through the data collected through in-depth interviews, documents and on-site observations. As mentioned, I highlighted words, phrases or sentences that were applicable to any of the above criteria outlined previously. Additionally, I gathered relevant literature on these subheadings topics and created sections that utilized SFD theory to corroborate the findings acquired during my field work. In doing so, I was then able to analyze the data in relation to best practices outlined in conjunction with SFD theory.

Secondly, my data analysis involved using the criteria developed by Kidd (2011) that was created to ensure the augmentation of effective SFD procedures when developing programming initiatives. A similar technique was used to extract the rich data that could be used to answer the questions posed by Kidd (2011). Moreover, I used my on-site observations in my journal, as well as documents collected and

the in-depth interviews produce the findings outlined in Chapter 4. A summary of the criteria used to cross-reference the data include the following: the participants must feel that programs equate to their needs and that they have been conferred with in the design and execution in the initiative; initiatives must ascertain skilled, knowledgeable professionals in the roles of administrators, coaches, and teachers; to attain success, initiatives must be linked to other development programs, specifically in education/health/employment and youth development; programs must be sustainable and have a long-term individual/community impact; and monitoring and evaluation must be suitable to the projected beneficiaries and outcomes. If the program is to be employed by outsider practitioners, the outcomes must be shared with the participants and published in open sources (Kidd, 2011).

### **Misinterpretations in Case Context Based Knowledge**

The author of this thesis wishes to address a common misinterpretation concerning context-dependent knowledge. Liamputtong (2009) proposes that context dependent knowledge is at the core of all expert activity. It is only by going through the process of completing a case study that one may acquire expert knowledge about a particular case. In contrast, if students were trained only in the process of context-independent knowledge, they would stay at a novice level. At Harvard University, both teaching and research in the professional schools are modeled with the understanding that case knowledge is central to human learning. Cases are essential in advancing researchers' learning processes through attaining context dependent knowledge needed to do quality research. Liamputtong argued

predictive theories and universals cannot be found in the study of human affairs and concrete context-dependent knowledge is more valuable than the vain search for predictive theories and universal (p 121).

### **Research Questions**

This M.A. thesis was guided by two key research questions:

1. What are the sport for development (SFD) best practices from the context of an AODP?
2. How can understandings of the sport for development program under study in the African context advance sport for development theory (SFDT)?

### **Purposeful Sampling and Participation**

The sample for this case involved purposeful sampling. According to Patton (2002),

purposeful sampling focuses on “information rich” participants that “illuminate the questions under study” (p. 230). Further, Starik and Marcus (2000) called for research that focuses on key decision makers. The pool of participants in this thesis was comprised of the decision-makers or administrators of the AODP program as well as community leaders in that comprise this SFD AODP. The information-rich participants established the program structure, policies, and programming, and were the decision-making body of the organization and hold the highest level of information concerning the sport-for-development program. A total of participants ( $N=5$ ) were involved in the study. The researcher interviewed  $N=4$  out of a pool of 5 for 80% of the potential participants. Two of the interview participants were local employees acting as program liaison members. Also, the other two interview participants were project staff members. All four were vital in program operations for the organization and had direct knowledge of the program since its early development. One senior member was instrumental in the program development since its inception. It is important to note that another participant was willing to participate in an interview. This individual, however, was hospitalized due to malaria and was unavailable. The amount of time the participants that were involved have been involved in the program ranged from a few weeks to 2006.

### **Biases in Case Research**

The author of this research understood that all researchers have preset biases. In this thesis, the biases included that the author had a belief in SFD and had been influenced by the literature examined during courses and the thesis literature review. Further, this author was biased due to a desire to fill the gaps in the literature and to draw connections between the idea of development and the usefulness of sport for this development. This author had implicit biases that needed to be managed throughout the daily program activities. The author was aware of these biases and was cognitive of managing these biases in order to not influence the data collected and the analysis results. Further, and importantly, Patton (2002) noted that “studies that use only one method are vulnerable to errors” (p. 248); thus, the author utilized data triangulation (Patton, 2002), including three data sources: documents, interviews and observations to gain the benefits of triangulation.

### **Trust-Building and Rapport**

Gaining trust has been noted as an essential component for penetrating marginalized and/or sensitive, oppressed populations (Dickenson-Swift, James, & Liamputtong, 2008; Liamputtong, 2007;

Reinharz & Chase, 2002). Moreover, Seymour (2001) promoted an essential component of conducting good research was accomplished through creating and maintaining a high level of trust with the research participants. Further, Booth (1999) detailed that researchers have, in the past, entered the environment and do not take the time to show a real interest in the population and conduct what is referred to as a “smash and grab” or “data-raid”.

In order to establish and maintain a level of rapport and trust with the participants of my study, I involved myself as a volunteer for a project. Thereby, I was not conducting a “smash and grab” situation, I started by volunteering in a variety of initiatives that aided in the establishment of relationships with the participants prior to conducting research. Furthermore, I appreciated the fact that this could not be done in a short period of time. Thus, I offered my services as a volunteer for the maximum period that a volunteer can stay, and worked in the program 12 weeks. Throughout the generation of my review of literature, I learned to appreciate that many of the most effective researchers have had the ability to spend a significant amount of time developing relationships with the participants prior to beginning any research. It is because of this understanding that I committed the financial resources and time resource to be in the organizational environment. In doing so, I enhanced my chances of building trust and rapport with the participants prior to completing my research.

Overall, Renzetti and Lee (1993) viewed building trust as far from a simple assignment as researchers often were met with confrontation or other negative emotions prior to conducting research. They stated that “it is not unusual for the powerless or disadvantaged to treat the researcher with skepticism, fearing that the cooperation will bring in its wake only further their exploitation” (p. 101). As a novice researcher, I feared a lack of cooperation by individuals that were living in the region and participating in the program. Thereby, I entered their environment with good intentions, honesty, and whole-heartedness, committed time to assist their unique approach to community build and develop meaningful participants.

### **Data Collection Methods**

This thesis utilized three data collection methods. The first data collection involved document collection, the second involved in-depth interviews, and the third involved observations of the case. Each of these will be described below. Each of the three data collection methods, and their subsequent analysis, was framed with the sport for development and peace international working group secretariat (SDP IWG)

(2007); best practice” programs or interventions that included:

1. Scale: The size and sustainability of the program
2. How it addresses barriers?
3. Justification: What were the criteria for establishing the program?
4. Culturally specific (needs based): Is the program sensitive to specific local needs?
5. Any evidence of mainstreaming
6. Evidence and published material: availability of appropriate evidence
7. Gender: Is the program open, and sensitive to gender issues?
8. Disability: Is the program open to and adapted for persons with a disability?

Within this framework the scale component was interpreted with the Curado and Bontis (2007) three areas of capital, including relational, structural, and human capital. With this framework mainstreaming interpreted with the Coalter (2006) Sport-in-Development Logic Model themes outlined in the review of literature. B. Kidd (2011) Sport for Development Program Checklist to augment effective SFD procedures (outlined in the review of literature). This data collection/analysis framework was described in the review of literature. An synopsis of the framework is outlined in Figure 2 (e.g., p. 42) themes and strategies based on the following two frameworks: the Curado and Bontis (2007) three areas of capital in the MIC Matrix and the Coalter (2006) Sport-in-Development Logic Model. First, the Curado and Bontis MIC Matrix provided the themes of relational capital, structural capital, human capital, customer-centric innovation and focus groups, organizational innovations, and individual recruitment.

To answer research questions one and two document collection was completed. The documents collected for this study was supported by Krippendorff (1980) as “a research technique for making replicable and valid inferences from texts (or other meaningful matter) to the contexts of their use” (p. 18). Further, Krippendorff “also assigns content analysis a particular role vis-à-vis their objects of inquiry” (p. 29). In this thesis study, documents collected included items such as the AODP and program documents on, but not limited to, the case. These documents can include hard copy and web-based materials. All document content was reviewed for the themes derived from the two data collection frameworks outlined above.

### **In-depth Interviews**

To answer research question one, in part, in-depth interviews, along with document collection and on-site observations were conducted. Best and Kahn (1986) stated that “the relationship between interviewer and subject requires an expertness and sensitivity that might well be called an art” (p. 187). Conducting an interview is much like an oral questionnaire. With an experienced interviewer, the technique is often more effective than alternative methods for collecting data. After an interviewer gains rapport with the participant, the interviewer can gain confidential information that would not otherwise be accessed (Best & Kahn, 1986).

What’s more, an interview can be particularly effective as the researcher has an opportunity to describe more explicitly the study’s purpose and the information that he or she wants. Clarification is also possible before the conclusion of the interview process. Preparation for the interview is a fundamental step in the procedure; researchers must have a clear idea of the information they wish to obtain (Best & Kahn, 1986).

Furthermore, researchers must be prepared for the emotional side of interviewing. Roulston, deMarrais, and Lewis (2003) indicated that feelings of excitement, anticipation, and anxiety were detailed by novice doctoral students in a study on learning to interview in the social sciences. Also, a quotation by Spradley (1979) speaks to the dynamics of an interview and relates directly to the experience of an ethnographic interview that serves as a guiding tool for the focus of knowledge construction. Spradley states:

I want to understand the world from your point of view. I want to know what you know in the way you know it. I want to understand the meaning of your experience, to walk in your shoes, to feel things as you feel them, to explain things as you explain them. Will you become my teacher and help me understand? (p. 34)

It is, thus, important to obtain a certain level of theoretical knowledge in advance and for application during the process. According to Roulston et al. (2003), the best instruction occurs with practical application of theory, the accumulation of experience and the rehearsing of acquired skills. “The most effective way to learn how to interview is by doing it” (p. 662). Two pilot interviews were conducted in order to learn more about the interview process prior to interviews being completed. Additionally, because I am volunteering



with other English speaking people as well as our African liaisons, this allowed for the interview to be conducted with participants using a translator. However, I am aware that in the past there have been challenges presented in similar circumstances.

### **Interview Questions**

Based on the themes from the data collection/analysis framework that included the Sport for Development and Peace International Working Group Secretariat (SDP IWG) (2007) and the B. Kidd (2011) Sport for Development Program Checklist to augment effective SFD procedures, the following interview questions were utilized to gather data:

1. Tell me about yourself and your SFD involvement
2. What is the rationale for the program?
3. Who is supporting the program? (a) Locally, regionally, nationally and internationally?
4. Tell me about the human resources? (a) What is needed? (b) How are individuals recruited for the program? (c) What type of individual are you specifically seeking? (d) What gender(s)? (e) Options for those with disabilities?
5. What sport skill competencies are you developing?
6. What non sport skill competencies are you developing?
7. What resulting social development have you noticed from the participants in the program?
8. What/how are you providing information... and what level of understanding is being developed? [*1=low; 10=high*]
9. Overall, tell me about the program impacts and changing behaviors.
10. Where do you see the organization heading in the next 3–5 years, and what impacts do you see for the participants?
11. Do you believe the AODP makes every effort to make the program sustainable over time?

### **Observations**

This thesis utilized observations, along with interviews and document collection to answer research question one on the best practices and research question two on the advances of SFDT based on

observations and subsequent recommendations concerning how sport can successfully advance social change and development.

From the beginnings of scientific inquiry, observations have been the primary method of data collection. The observations were completed based on two strategies. The first strategy was to observe the SFD practices by the case based on the framework outlined above. The second strategy was to keep a reflective journal of observations based on the researcher reflecting on his role and the impact of his role on the participants/program and himself. The aim of the reflective journal was to record what the researcher was going through: recording thoughts concerning if the researcher was having an impact and recording thoughts on benchmarks on how to be sensitive in the context/setting and best practices for participating in a low-resourced setting. Best and Kahn (1986) detailed that “observation of natural phenomena, aided by systematic classification and measurement, led to the development of theories and laws of nature’s forces” (p. 158). Observations have been noted to continue to exemplify all research: experimental, descriptive, and historical (Best & Kahn, 1986).

Observation as a research data collection procedure, required rigor in order to ensure the rational pursuit of scientific methodology. Following the work of Best and Kahn (1986), the ensuing observational requirements were cautiously outlined, systematic, and perceptive. The researcher was mindful of what he was looking for and what was unrelated in a specific circumstance. The researcher worked to be objective, to identify likely biases, and to attempt to distinguish their influence upon what was observed and reported. Furthermore, observations were detailed and carefully recorded. The researcher used the applicable instruments of a framework, pen and paper to “systemize, quantify and preserve results of their observations” (Best & Kahn, 1986, p.18).

### **Reflexivity**

Phillips (1993) understood the importance of reflexivity in qualitative research as he stated, “unless we turn our gaze upon ourselves we cannot realize the reconstruction of the societies in which we live” (p. xii). Moreover, for example, there has been a plethora of commentators suggesting reflexivity’s potential for personal transformation and ‘self-discovery’ (England 1994, p. 82). Yet, according to Maxey (1999)

Given the scale and depth of oppression and exclusion in this increasingly  
brutalized and globalized world, reflecting on our minuscule individual

contributions could be disempowering, leaving us to shrug our shoulders and reject the whole reflexive challenge. However, the empowering potential of engaging critically and reflexively with our research, and all aspects of our lives, remains there for us all, whether we choose to embrace this potential or not (p. 206).

In a study conducted in the Brock University Graduate Studies school system, a participatory action research (PAR) was employed with the objective to involve young women in creating programs that would help tackle obesity. Previous research suggested that it was important to work with these young women towards taking action, addressing the body image, and wellness issues. Within this PAR project, the author engaged in trust building exercises so the young women would not see her as a typical researcher. The two phases of the PAR project were in building relationships between September and December 2007 and action between January and June of 2008. An important aspect of the first phase was familiarization, with her physical surroundings. What's more, during the 4 months she spent making connections with the students in the school she decided instead of interacting with the entire school she made connections with a core group of students. In order to give back to the school and the programs, she demonstrated to the people that she was grateful for the opportunity. During the action stage, ideas and strategies were proposed by the students, staff, teachers and media. The creation and ongoing existence of this core group demonstrated the success of this PAR project. The core group was instrumental in the creation of the several initiatives discussed in the manuscript, including the Wellness Policy (McHugh & Kowlaski, 2010).

The situation described above was noted as important for the planning of my research design in Zambia. I employed a similar approach in my research design. Although, the case above was a doctoral thesis, thereby the individual had more finances and time to spend at the school (an entire school year). In my case, I was there for 3 months, thereby I did not employ as much time; however, a similar tactic where I spend the first part volunteering and participating in programs in order to build trust with these individuals was employed. The second part of my thesis involved interviewing and data collection. During the first half I took notes on my experiences in Zambia as a researcher. This process is known as reflexivity. According to Liamputtong (2009) reflexivity is defined as, "An acknowledgement of the role and influence of the researcher on the research project; the role of the research is subject to the same critical analysis and

scrutiny as the research itself” (p. 4). According to the researchers values, it is imperative that one has the realization that the researcher themselves are an instrument. Recording initial interpersonal and environmental experiences will begin the reflexive process.

Further, as my first interview experience in my Qualitative Research class made me feel excitement, anticipation, and anxiety prior to the interview. This experience followed the experiences outlined by doctoral students in learning to interview in social sciences (Roulston, deMarrais & Lewis, 2003). I planned, therefore, to ensure that the practical application of theory, the accumulation of experience, and the rehearsing of acquired skills be used as “the most effective way to learn how to interview is by doing it” (Roulston et. al, 2003, p. 662).

### **Limitations**

The limitations of purposeful sampling can be derived from multiple elements. For instance, communicating qualitative findings can involve over generalizing the results as the findings can be highly contextual and case dependent and can be limited based on selectivity in the people who were sampled either for observations or interviews, or on selectivity in document sampling (Patton, 1999). It is important for researchers to be aware and to address the limitations within a study (Patton, 1999).

The author of this study acknowledges that there were limitations for generalizing the results of this study on SFD. This limitation implied that recommendations for application to similar programs may not be successful due to contextual differences in areas such as the local environment, the history, and the support for programming. Another limitation is that this novice researcher entered a foreign environment. This meant that there were preconceived ideas about the community that had to be contained in order to not influence the data – in particular the questions and probing comments with the participants. This meant the researcher had to be open for the cultural nuances, language influences, age and experience of the participants, and the impact of the financial resources. In order to manage this limitation, the researcher worked diligently to manage his preconceived perspectives so they did not influence the data collection and was open to the current realities of the context.

Additionally, my experience and the construction of various relationships, along with the witnessing of well-established community social networks, biases that the researcher brought with him leaned towards policies of locally led sustainable development over top down northern led ideals of

development. It was important for the researcher to be open to the community position concerning leadership in order to not influence the data.

A further limitation of this study is that it did not include in depth interviews with the local youth. The inherent challenges and complexity of the nature of the interviews led the researcher to believe it that focusing on this area was extending the research too broadly. Importantly, the indigenous voice was included in the study as two of the participants were experienced local community leaders.

A final limitation to be discussed involved the issue that the four participants were the key individuals knowledgeable in the coordination and activation of the sport programming, but did not hold the highest level programming decision making power. Unfortunately, the AODP head Manager focused on the nursing/health care field and did not have any experience with the sport programming. Additionally, another top level manager was not involved on a day-to-day basis with the organization, rather she served as a manager of staff and her tendency to travel, as well as an illness that resulted in her hospitalization, meant that the researcher was unable to secure an interview.

## CHAPTER FOUR: FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

This thesis involved an exploration of a case study of SFD best practices in the context of an AODP, in Zambia. Africa. Overall, this research gained an understanding of community development through participation, as the thesis author travelled to Zambia in order to study the SFD program. This allowed the author to develop a deep understanding of the people and program. The researcher was in Africa from September 11, 2013 until December 16, 2013 for a total of 12 weeks immersed in the program.

The two research questions guiding the study were:

1. What are the SFD best practices from the context of an AODP?
2. How can understandings of the Sport For Development program under study in the African context advance SFD theory?

The research data collection and analysis involved document collection, observations and interviews. All data collection and analysis was framed with the Sport For Development and Peace International Working Group (SDP IWG) Secretariat (2007):

1. Scale: The size and sustainability of the program
2. How it addresses barriers?
3. Justification: What were the criteria for establishing the program?
4. Culturally specific (needs based): Is the program sensitive to specific local needs?
5. Any evidence of mainstreaming
6. Evidence and published material: availability of appropriate evidence
7. Gender: Is the program open, and sensitive to gender issues?
8. Disability: Is the program open to and adapted for persons with a disability?

Additionally, the category of scale stated in the SFD best practices above has been interpreted by this thesis researcher to encompass the Curado and Bontis (2007) work on the three areas of capital, including relational capital, structural capital, and human capital as described in the following paragraph:

(a) Structural capital is made up of the stock of knowledge that exists in the organization when the employees are not present; (b) structural capital exists in tangible forms in databases, filing cabinets etc. (Bontis et al., 2003); and (c) relational capital exists in the outside networks, which entails foremost knowledge about customers (Curado & Bontis, 2007). Last, the data collection and analysis framework also included Kidd's (2011) Sport for

Development Program Checklist to augment effective SFD procedures (outlined in the review of literature).

### **Trust Building**

In many of the successful qualitative research studies, the authors spend up to half of their research time engaging the participants in meaningful relationship building prior to any attempt at data collection (Frisby, 2005; Kingsley, Phillips, Townsend, & Henderson-Wilson, 2010). Furthermore, through analysis of the data, the importance of trust and relationship building in the community was deemed to be central to the vision and mission of the organization examined in Africa (Journal, 2013).

Additionally, to extract rich, meaningful data during interviews, there was a concentration of efforts on building meaningful relationships with the participants, specifically the community leaders (Journal, 2013). For example, Participant 2 and I worked together for a minimum of 3 hours a day 5 days a week for over 2 months prior to the interview (Journal, 2013). I also spent the majority of my free time socializing with locals from all different ages and professions. For instance, I attended local festivals, Sunday church, visited their homes and met their friends and family that served as a forum for socialization and cultural integration (Journal, 2013). Lindsey and Gratton (2011) noted the influence of the church in Zambia and the potential to use it as a platform to actively engage the community in development projects.

Additionally, I participated in informal language tutorial lessons provided by another close friend who worked at the housing in which I lived for the 3 months while I was in Africa (Journal, 2013). By learning the local dialect I was able to actively communicate with locals. This demonstrated my sincere interest in integrating me within the local culture, thereby building many relationships in the community. Throughout my stay in Zambia, I gained the trust of local staff, community members, students, and, teachers through showing a genuine interest in integrating myself in the community (Journal, 2013).

Trust and relationship building proved to be the most important element to establishing a connection to the population. It helped in understanding the wants/needs of the local population. Through the process of socialization, I came to develop relationships that, hopefully, will last a lifetime. The unique interactions I experienced could not be captured through the analysis of literature, as described by a close friend, and community leader when he stated “as you have witnessed, no one can tell you about Zambia now. You associate with locals; they’ll tell you how we live here” (Participant 2). It is important to note that my time in Zambia was a personal transformational experience, whereby I gained personal mental strength as I went through

the experience. Please see Appendix A for a narrative that outlines proof of my trust building efforts.

### **Section 1: SFD Best Practices (SDP IWG): Scale and Sustainability**

The organization has been active in Zambia since 2006 (Participants 3 & 4, 2013).

The project was promoted as the most successful project operated by the organization (Personal Communication, 2013). This section on scale will discuss the small population size, the integrated leadership, and how being the only northern based organization in the area impacted the program. Further, this section will discuss continued efforts to make the programming more sustainable and the unique challenges they face as an organization. Finally, the author of this thesis will outline literature on youth peer-leaders as a potential strategy to increase the sustainability of the program.

Many attributes that contributed to the successful programming were realized during observations during on-site implementation. For instance, the size of the city in relation to the size of the program was noted as a significant factor. The city, with a population of roughly 150,000, was a small, close-knit community where program integration was displayed in numerous manners, the most simplistic being that wherever the company van traveled, kids yelled out, “Muzungu Bus!” which meant “White person’s bus.” This call is directly associated with the company brand. As discussed earlier, the community did not initially trust the organization (Participant 2); the population was not used to Whites in this small community (Participant 2). However, over time, the community learned to trust the organization (Participant 2). This researcher interpreted this acceptance as stemming from starting on a scale that was small and that allowed for local integration to occur as the program grew (Journal, 2013).

Also, a significant amount of human capital was noted as being constructed with the support of numerous “local champions” (Journal, 2013). For instance, one particular leader achieved a level of celebrity through a powerful connection with youth from all over the community. According to Curado and Bontis (2007), human capital is an important building block to establishing a unique connection within the environment. This researcher observed that a level of community good will held by organization was fostered through on going communication with public organizations and NGOs.

Additionally, the AODP was the only organization of its kind in the community (Journal, 2013). A marketing constituent on the AODP staff indicated that the success of the project can be largely attributed to the close ties between the organization and the community (Journal, 2013). This success, built from a small-scale



beginning, is the result of the strong partnerships they have with community partners and their flexibility to adapt the program to best meet community needs (Journal, 2013).`

It is notable that the AODP and its charitable wing are not traditional aid agencies. Instead, their vision is to foster sustainable community development through conservation-based initiatives (reference removed for confidentiality). The organization believes giving food directly to the community would conflict with their goal to work sustainably (reference removed for confidentiality). The organization assists in community efforts to develop their own income through projects that reduce their “dependency” on external sources (reference removed for confidentiality).

Moreover, there was a unique challenge for the AODP under study to enter these communities to activate or recreate a sport culture where a large portion of population is occupied by the daily struggles of life (Boshoff, 1997). This is reiterated by an interviewee when he speaks candidly regarding the day-to-day struggles in this city

The companies are coming like [the AODP], so you find some are giving clothes and some are giving food. I think food is life, because if you build someone shelter with no food, he is going to die in that shelter (p. 157-159).

Moreover, during interviews, the AODP staff addressed potential growth areas in an attempt to foster program sustainability (Participants 3 & 4). To ensure the success of the program, they planned to develop a sports club and recruit adolescent teens and young adults to work as coaches and volunteers of the program, thus gaining the ability to operate regardless of the presence of the organization (Participants, 3 & 4).

According to the literature, youth have played a noteworthy role in SFD projects, as both peer coaches and teachers (Maro, Roberts, & Sorenens, 2009; Nicholls 2009; Peacock-Villada, Decelles, & 2010. Lindsey and Gratton (2011) found in Zambia that youth-focused NGOs utilized peer leaders in a variety of initiatives and that the peer leadership structure in programs, such as in Edu sport and Sport in Action, were “volunteer based” (Coalter, 2010a, p. 310). Coalter (2009) offers a parallel observation in relation to the Mathare Youth Sport Association in Kenya as did a peer leader in Chawama who advocated that “Edu sport is like our parents to us.” Thus, the significance of SFD organizations merely through their presence may be amplified when understood within their cultural context (Coalter, 2009).

As discussed, the AODP made significant strides to integrate into the local community and, thus,

have transformed from an organization which the community did not trust to one that the volunteers welcome into the community, with the brand of the AODP gaining a significant amount of goodwill capital. This was deemed to be possible due to the small scale of the community and the extensive work to integrate within the community and to make the program sustainable over time. Moreover, the African organization addressed specific areas to improve in terms of creating sustainable program and has been making strides to improve on these areas.

### **Program Barriers**

This section will discuss the barriers to achieving SFD programming. It is also important to note that there are additional issues that relate to the medical and educational departments of the AODP. However, for the purposes of this thesis, the focus is solely on the barriers for sport programming. In this section, the barriers outlined include: financial constraints and lack of facilities, along with economic and governance challenges that exist in Zambia.

Lindsay and Gratton (2011) identified two key issues in their Zambia SFD research, including financial constraints and the lack of facilities. With respect to SFD issues, a large portion of stakeholders from standard organizations addressed challenges of facilities over finances (Lindsey & Gratton, 2011). For example, these researchers noted that Chawama had only two football pitches and one small netball court, all of which required grass or other surface materials. However, concrete facilities, including basketball and netball courts, were slightly more common in Kamwala as part of some schools' facilities, but gaining admission to use these facilities was limited (Lindsey & Gratton, 2011).

In the case of this research, similar issues have occurred. For example, one of the football pitches was littered with glass. Prior to activities, thus, we had to work together to ensure the field was safe for the students. At the same school playground, the goalposts were mostly in disrepair. Moreover, at another school, there was no playground; thus, we had to walk with the students to a nearby public area that was often also being used by other community groups.

Moreover, at the community school, there were not enough finances to construct proper areas to play. For instance, at many of the schools there were no football nets and the play area was made up of dirt rather than grass. Also, goal posts were constructed by using rocks. The AODP does provide footballs; however, because the students come dressed in proper school dress shoes, the majority of students sought to protect their

shoes and participated in the activities in their bare feet.

Similarly, in the Lindsey and Gratton (2011) research, residents in Kamwala cited that the goalposts from the single football pitch in the community were stolen and sold as scrap metal. Also, residents in Chawama explained the challenges they encountered to prevent the construction of homes and other facilities on one local football pitch. The degree to which such construction was controlled was uncertain, and similar situations have occurred in preceding construction works in Chawama and Kamwala that had detached play areas for young persons (Lindsey & Gratton, 2011).

Lindsey and Gratton (2011) also found that economic and governance challenges were barriers to creating suitable sports facilities in Zambia. These unfulfilled government responsibilities were a result of the weakened state capabilities (Lindsey & Gratton, 2011). In this case, one barrier stemmed from a weak government that has given way to allow corporate power from the north to influence in the south. This is a barrier to the locals developing and controlling their own destiny. This topic concerning power could be examined further in another study as it has undertones of being similar to colony power situations in the past. In this state of power, Kindes and Kirwan (2009) argued that processes, in relation to urbanization, have contributed to the forfeiture of play areas in countless sub-Saharan Africa contexts. The expansive nature of this theme is applicable to challenges faced by communities that are unable to construct facilities.

In Zambia, it was found to be clear that the government did not fulfill the role with respect to financial assistance in building and maintaining community facilities. The weakening of the state and the lack of social programming is a result of the weakening of state capacities (Lindsey & Gratton, 2011). Thereby, the AODP has been involved in numerous projects to help restore or build community schools and retirement homes. As the state capacity continues to dissipate, communities must increasingly depend on NGOs to help develop, upkeep facilities, and create social programming.

### **Justification for Establishing Programming**

The aforementioned barriers identified in the previous section are a source for ongoing concern, thereby justifying the establishment of organizations to address these issues. Accordingly, the AODP established programming that focused on addressing the areas of need in social programming, education, facilities, and health care. The AODP has partnered with the educational institutions to address areas of need including the creation of physical education programming, as well as creative, educational components in the curriculum that

educates the youth and brings awareness to the HIV/AIDS epidemic.

The schools are in desperate need of assistance as they are not supported financially by the government (Participants 3 & 4). Thus, they struggle to function efficiently and effectively. The AODP has partnered with the District Education Board Secretary and Provincial Sports Advisory Council to address concerns in education, specifically in local community schools (Participants 3 & 4).

Many students in these schools come from impoverished families, are orphaned children, or are from unstable homes (Participants 3 & 4). The AODP continues to help youth in gaining knowledge in relation to health and lifestyle choices and the physical education curriculum (Participants 3 & 4). It was observed that without the AODP, the children in these community schools would have no access to any type of physical education or development through sport (Participants 3 & 4, 2013).

In this Zambia community there is a massive financial burden on each family to make the required payments to ensure their children attend school full-time. As such, many families cannot meet their obligations and community schools are often unable to pay teachers; therefore, the schools have fewer teachers and the classrooms have become overcrowded. The aforementioned challenges have resulted in sport being overlooked in favor of core academic subjects (Participants 3 & 4). Furthermore, the organization's volunteers provide students, generally grades 3–6, with a curriculum that involves physical education and nutrition/health and positive living subjects (Participants 3 & 4).

Goodwill was garnered when the AODP partnered to purchase 22,000 books distributed to 19 schools and six libraries (reference removed for confidentiality). Also, the AODP built security fences around the schools and, as well, built different classroom blocks enabling numerous community schools to achieve basic school status, making them eligible for government grants (reference removed for confidentiality). The AODP ran sponsored programs in which 75+ children in the community were identified for assistance by a committee comprised of teachers, community leaders, and organizational staff (reference removed for confidentiality).

As of 2011, overall HIV prevalence in Zambia was 13%; however, it has been reported as considerably higher in some urban areas (UN AIDS, 2009) which include the community hosting the program under study where the HIV infects over 30% of the population (UN AIDS, 2009). Some groups are especially vulnerable, particularly young women and girls. Among young women aged 15–24, HIV infection has doubled that of men in this age category (UN AIDS, 2009). Thus, the AODP has encompassed HIV awareness as

integrated within their community programming, ensuring the education is culturally needs based. To meet this need, I spent a week teaching HIV integrated sports programming (Journal, 2013). The PE curriculum included a component that was focused on educating the young students through creative gaming that underscores the significance of the epidemic. The AODP focused on educational programs for young students who were close to the age of the population that is at the highest risk of infection.

Over the past year, the AODP formalized sports programming with the creation of a physical education manual and games manual (Participants 3 & 4). Programming strategies were altered to focus on incorporating a variety of physical educational topics that included: nutrition; hygiene; teamwork; and more (reference removed for confidentiality). However, the observations revealed that potential growth existed in the integration of all three key development initiatives. Currently, the AODP sports program is a stand-alone program that does not incorporate staff and volunteer expertise in health care and education platforms.

### **The Need for Culturally Specific (Needs-Based) Programming**

It is imperative that northern-led organizations do not impose their beliefs (Hartmann & Kwauk, 2011; Kidd, 2011; Levermore, 2008a; Levermore & Beacom, 2012) on what is the correct way to develop a community within Africa. Through on-site observation, I experienced the strong sense of community and sense of social belonging that exist in the community. Thus, the observations supported the necessity that northern development organizations focus specifically on the wants and needs of the communities in which they are actively pursuing development goals.

The advocates that promote community participation deliver a profound and an emotionally engaging case, and the process of community participation is backed by large amounts of literature (Botes & van Rensburg, 2000; Cuthill, 2003; Ife, 1995; O'Keefe & Hogg, 1999; Reid, 2003, 2006; & Sanoff, 2000). However, as this section demonstrates, community engagement strategies are multifaceted, challenging endeavors that are dependent on the context in which they are operating. This section will outline the importance of strategic partnerships, and of long-term strategies that utilize community participation. Also, this section will discuss acknowledging the challenges involved with engaging community members, and voicing the concerns of participants while putting the emphasis on cooperation.

The importance of knowing how to develop, evaluate and manage successful partnerships is vital for any development initiative (Frisby, Thibault & Kikulis, 2004; Vail, 2007). Accordingly, the AODP partnered

with educational institutions, including the Ministry of Sport and the Provincial Sports Advisory Council (Participants 3 & 4). However, Vail (2007) described the importance of community collaboration as “an inclusive, representative group of community members who come together to work toward a common vision” (p. 576). Keeping with this definition, the AODP also partnered with organizations that included: Youth Empowerment and Development through Sports (YEDS); Tag Rugby Trust; Come Play Girls; Nak Liverpool Football Club; and the Youth Community Training Centre (Participants 3 & 4). These organizations served multiple interest group partners. However, it is noteworthy that these are not the AODP umbrella partners; rather they are partners with the organization at the macro level rather than the micro community division. Thus, the author of this thesis promotes that the AODP may wish to explore additional partnerships that serve multiple interest groups.

In theory, community participation involved engaging *all* individuals and groups. However, it is impractical to assume that all members of the community will become and remain actively engaged in this process. When underprivileged individuals or groups choose not to, or cannot, participate, the outcome is a false depiction of the overall community development program. Botes and van Rensburg (2000) envisioned the integration and empowerment of those who do not have the capacity to participate as one of the major challenges in the community development process. This concern was relevant, especially in a city with high illiteracy and poverty rates. According to one community leader, when struggling to provide for your family on a daily basis, active engagement in a process of community empowerment may not be of great importance (Participant 2).

Therein lays a problem, as each situation is unique, with diverse community resources and capacity. This meant that “western organizations” acting as agents of change must focus on being sensitive to participant voices within community development programs (Schulenkorf, 2011). Yet, typically, researchers go to a destination to conduct a study on a SFD program and the results are seldom shared with the participants or local stakeholders in the community (Levermore & Beacom, 2012). If the research is published, the majority of manuscripts are in paid journals that are inaccessible to the participants in these sport-based programs (Levermore & Beacom, 2012). This creates a type of “grab-and-go” style of research that is not beneficial to the development of the global south. This reality creates a great gap in knowledge mobilization. Thus, after the completing of this thesis, the researcher will ensure that the results are provided to the organization in the form of a report.

Also, community norms may result in a variety of degrees of community engagement. Specific traditions or behavioral norms can determine whether individuals or groups will actively engage themselves in cooperative initiatives (Reid, 2006; Siefken, Schofield, & Schulenkorf, 2010). Also, the duration of the time spent actively involving oneself in a community project without assurance of any desired outcomes may result in an individual choosing not to participate (Botes & van Rensburg, 2000). For the AODP, when designing community participation initiatives in the future, this is an important concept to take into account. Community engagement will be effective only if the participants believe they are contributing to change that is tangible.

Strategic engagement of individuals from a variety of ethnic origins involved in shared community projects has been demonstrated to increase the commitment of individuals and groups. Thus, participation can therefore be described as “the engine of community life” (Kenny, 1999, p. 64). Active involvement ensures underprivileged and/or segregated communities the capacity to assist themselves through newly formed connections or networks (O’Keefe & Hogg, 1999; Uruena, 2004). Inclusiveness, along with confidence and gratitude, in addition to a shared sense of direction, is imperative and should be nurtured within all community development projects (Ife, 1995; Skinner et al., 2008; Uruena, 2004).

### **Evidence of Mainstreaming**

The International Labour Organization (2013) describes mainstreaming as the process of assessing the implications for a specific subject of any planned action, including legislation, policies or programs, in any areas at all levels. It is a strategy for making the concerns of those an integral part of the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policies and programs in all political, economic and societal spheres (p. 22).

Beginning in 1991, the Zambia Development and Peace and Development (ZPD, 2014) organization has continuously supported its Zambian partners in the employment of numerous projects. Since 2000, they have provided ongoing support to projects developed by different rural organizations in Zambia (ZPD, 2014). Recently, the focus on international aid in the urban centers has resulted in intervention in the rural areas being increasingly vital (ZPD, 2014). As such, they have directed most of their resources to organizations based in the country’s rural areas (ZPD, 2014).

Zambia Peace and Development have the following objectives for their program (ZPD, 2014): (a)

Strengthen social groups, mainly women's and farmers' associations, and provide them with the means to help make the rural sector sustainable, so that people can manage their economic life effectively on their own (p. 1).

(b) Develop a program that educates the public about civic rights, so that citizens will be able to engage in mobilizing public opinion about their rights (p. 1). (c) Fight against corruption and advocate for the cancellation of the debt and the return of social policies (p. 1).

Another development-based organization; Restless Development (RD), aims to place young people at the forefront of change (RD, 2014). Their vision involves young people taking on leadership roles and addressing the most urgent issues facing the world, supported fully by their governments, communities, business, and society (RD, 2014). RD has three main goals: civic participation, livelihoods and employment, and sexual and reproductive health rights (RD, 2014). This organization has operatives in the UK, Nepal, Zambia, Sierra Leone, Zimbabwe, South Africa, Uganda, Tanzania, India, Nepal and the USA (RD, 2014).

Interestingly, the United Nations University Institute of Advanced Studies (UNU IAS, 2013) is involved in promoting sustainable development in Zambia and has been discussing experiences and ways to think forward (UNU IAS, 2013). UNU IAS is undertaking research to determine whether the mining industry in Zambia has a positive impact on sustainable development and environmental management. This involves assessing the impact of mining in meeting the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs. The findings are expected to have clear policy implications on economic development, environmental management and the country's millennium development goals attainment. The outcomes of this research are expected to result in (UNU AIS, 2013): (a) Enhancement of economic policies on natural resource extraction to promote equity and transparent (p. 1). (b) Highlighting the impact of mining on the environment, biodiversity and ecosystems as a whole (p.1). (c) Advocating for the adoption of more robust and internationally accepted and recognized procedures and regulations for environmental management (p.1). (d) Contributing to the ongoing debate on the importance of mining to sustainable development in Zambia (p. 1).

Furthermore, it is important to assess the features or overlapping processes these initiatives retain in relation to the logic model developed by Coalter (2006). For instance, the ZPD outlined several objectives and revised goals including strengthen social groups, mainly women's and farmers' associations, and provide them with the means to help make the rural sector sustainable, so that people can manage their economic life effectively on their own (ZPD, 2014). Thereby, it is evidenced that the community resources need to stimulate



economic growth leading to the proper outputs and impacts that are outlined within the logic-model (Coalter, 2006).

What's more, ZPD has developed a program that educates the public about civic rights (aims) so that citizens will be able to engage in mobilizing public opinion about their rights (ZPD, 2014). They have, thus, focused on information/skills development through targeted groups similar to the design of the logic-model (Coalter, 2006). Further, the fight against corruption promotes equity and objectives after a thorough audit of the community conditions, again utilizing similar strategies to those outlined in the logic-model (Coalter, 2006).

Moreover, Restless Development, through an audit of community conditions and consultation with stakeholders, has created their revised performance objectives targeting the youth in an attempt to create leadership roles for this age group. As aforementioned, RD has focused on civic participation, livelihoods and employment, and sexual and reproductive health rights. Once again, through an audit of community conditions and resources, they have directed their aims in accordance to personal and social development as well as information and understanding—all important steps outlined in the logic model (Coalter, 2006).

Finally, the UNU AIS outlined objectives to apprehend the necessary inputs or revisions in objectives in certain communities in order to achieve the proper outputs that are showcased in the UN millennium development goals (UNU AIS, 2013). Accordingly, they have outlined the expected intermediate impacts/outputs from a thorough audit of the current conditions of the mining industry (Coalter, 2006; & UNU AIS, 2013).

It is, thus, obvious that development in many forms is mainstreaming into a variety of areas in recent years. Zambia Peace and Development, Restless Development, the United Nations University, as well as the World Bank and The African Bank have all shown interest to different degrees in community development, targeting different demographics and sectors. However, there is a large amount of activity in Zambia, and it is clear that the process of mainstreaming is well underway in Zambia. Furthermore, all three programs outlined in providing evidence of mainstreaming have properties coinciding with the sport- in-development logic model created by Coalter (2006).

### **Published Material**

This section will discuss the published material by the AODP including annual financial reports, annual reports, newsletters, and information packets provided to volunteers before arriving on site. Prior to arriving in Zambia, the AODP provided the volunteers with published information relating to: safety; living

quarters; meals; local amenities; volunteer activities; weather and climate; code of conduct; excursions and weekend activities; a history of Zambia; HIV information; Zambian etiquette, and much more (Journal, 2013). Further, the organization provided the volunteers with both a child protection policy and child protection guidelines for working with children (Journal, 2013).

The AODP also publishes annual financial reports as well as annual reports. The annual reports outlined information regarding the following areas: key areas of development, success stories in health and nutrition, education, and enrichment, empowering communities, areas of development in numbers, and charitable expenditures by country (name removed due to confidentiality). The organization also publishes a newsletter that outlines progress relating to key development areas and projects (name removed due to confidentiality).

In 2012 the AODP annual report, the vision for their volunteer projects was described as “to deliver fantastic experiences for our volunteers and we guide all of our teams to adopt a balanced approach when managing our projects” (reference removed for confidentiality). Further, they emphasize the belief that if they create a sustainable initiative, they are creating exciting opportunities to volunteers and would have “good” projects and strong relationships with their partners—then they would be functioning properly (reference removed for confidentiality). Accordingly, the organization believes that functioning in this way drives sustainable change and continues to ensure they have the necessary number of volunteers to solidify the business (reference removed for confidentiality).

The AODP annual report listed numerous achievements during 2012 including quantitative data, which exemplifies their success on macro-scale. These achievements included:

1. 2500+ volunteers helping on projects; contributing 37800 days of help on our community, medical and conservation initiatives across Africa
2. This was a 19% growth on 2011 (p. 10)
3. Volunteers assisted in providing (reference removed for confidentiality). (a) Almost 50,000 hours providing education at pre-schools, orphanages & primary schools (b) 43,000+ hours teaching lions life skills & almost 17000 on lion health (c) 9,000+ hours teaching English to adults (d) 2200+ hours on holiday clubs & over 2700 on after school clubs (e) 14000+ hours supporting clinics & over 3,000 on home based care (p.10) (f)
4. The AODP volunteer achievements include (reference removed for confidentiality). (a)

They started a nutrition program for rural families and all involved put on a minimum of 10% in weight. There are 3 levels to the program with fruit and vegetable plants being awarded at each stage (b) In July they opened the Inkanyezi Crèche, the culmination of fund raising and brick making over 3 months (c) They ran a “know thyself” youth camp over 5 days for 120 teenagers from orphanages in Kenya (d) They built a new classroom at a nursery school on Zanzibar (e) They collaborated with a group of local ladies, to set up a community garden which within 3 months was providing income through selling produce to supermarkets and hotels (f) We created a wetland habitat in a game reserve from the “grey water” from the base camp (g) We gave a kick start to the education of children at pre-schools in South Africa, Zambia, Zimbabwe, Mozambique, Kenya and Zanziba (p. 10).

The author of this thesis is not critical of these numbers and achievements provided by the AODP. However, it is important to practice monitoring and evaluation and to provide evidence on a micro-level. Similar to the necessity to develop culturally relevant needs based programs, the author of this thesis suggests that the AODP should consider developing ways to analyze the ongoing effectiveness of programming at the community level.

In the AODP annual report (2012), they addressed sport and community development, stating “volunteers provide sports coaching and physical education in under-resourced schools and make a positive impact on the lives of underprivileged children” (pp. 22–23). Further, they state that the organization mentored these often enthusiastic youth at local schools, while volunteers employed their knowledge to improve techniques of community sports leaders (referenced removed for confidentiality). Through this program their goal was to empower the youth of all ages, through sport, to build self-esteem, as many of these children are from impoverished backgrounds (reference removed for confidentiality). Further, they stated that the total hours contributed by volunteers in 2012 was the substantive number of, 6,468 hours (referenced removed for confidentiality).

Currently there has been no attempt to monitor or evaluate the program under study on a micro-level. The annual report only provides a description of the daily activities and efforts of sport volunteers. The UN Development Program promoted that “programs and projects with strong monitoring and evaluation components tend to stay on track” (UNDP, 2009, p. 7). Therefore, in the following section the author will expand on the importance of monitoring and evaluation, in addition, will provide several different modules which the AODP

may wish to consider for their programming.

### **Gender Issues**

In the 1970s, various sport and development projects began to shift their programming towards women. In 1975, the UN declared the start of the decade for women, initiatives became more widespread; gender issues were integrated into areas, such as policy making, programs, projects, and research. A transition from women *in* development to women *and* development became a form of struggle for power and for social structures controlled by males (United Nations, 2003). The decade was characterized by the development of the United Nations Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (1979).

According to the SDG IWG, consistent participation in sport and physical activity augments the physical health of girls and women and reduces the probability of unhealthy practices. Further, literature argues that sport and physical activity positively affect self-esteem and self-worth among young women (SDP IWG, 2007). Specifically, sport may offer a means to empower young women, especially throughout the duration of increased vulnerability in adolescence (SDP IWG, 2007).

What's more, evidence from affluent to low-income countries has shown that sport positively encourages social integration and inclusion of young women (SDP IWG, 2007). The participation of girls and women in sport and physical activity offers an opportunity for successful challenges to traditional and oppressive gender relations. An analysis of sport programs focused on young women supports the notion that such initiatives offer significant opportunities for leadership development, personal, and professional growth (SDP IWG, 2007)

Based on observations, the AODP under study works towards creating an atmosphere of inclusion and equality. In the sports program, volunteers work with students of both genders and frequently have mutual gender participation; this meant that there was only an infrequent struggle to get mutual gender participation. However, there are some challenges to complete participation which will be discussed shortly in this section. Also, on a national scale, the government recently advised parents to focus their attention on the female child. Finally, this section will discuss the recent opportunities that are being awarded to women in this Zambian city.

The idea of inclusion is highlighted throughout the program by volunteers and community champions. To ensure classes achieve mutual participation, the curriculum was designed to cater to both young men and women (Journal, 2013). For instance, during free time, after curriculum-focused education, a variety of

equipment was provided that the girls enjoy (skipping ropes, tennis balls, netballs) and the boys as well (soccer balls, rugby balls).

However, there are certain challenges that do arise on occasion. For instance, girls were not able to participate in certain exercises as the design of their uniforms prohibits certain movements and postures as uniforms do not sufficiently cover their body parts (Journal, 2013). Occasionally, the girls chose not to play football as a result of the high level of physicality in some matches (Journal, 2013). Also, on several occasions the boys voiced concerns over mutual gender participation. Thus, constant observation and occasional intervention by the volunteers is important in order to communicate the acceptable behaviors to the students. That being said, usually if female students from a class were reluctant to participate it was due to a personal physical matter rather than a gender issue promoted by the program (Participants 3 & 4).

As discussed, in the African program, physical education was not a core subject in the public school system (Journal, 2013). This resulted in students, usually young girls, becoming physically unfit. Accordingly, by the time these young girls reach the latter grades in school they are unfit and uncomfortable in participating in structured physical education classes (Journal, 2013). This was evidenced numerous times during on-site observations; boys were usually in excellent shape and physically active while the girls were inactive in their daily lives (Journal, 2013).

It has been noted that in recent years the Zambian government has advised families to turn their focus to their female offspring (Participant 2, 2013). The government has focused on providing equal opportunity now in the work world where they are looking for female police officers, female soldiers and positions many other areas (Participant 2, 2013). This is direct evidence of mainstreaming for the female gender within the Zambian society. According to Participant 2

this time now in Zambia a female child is more important than boys, why I am saying that is because the government is advising people to take first the girls. Here maybe a girl can be pregnant by 20. Now you will find equal opportunity, there are female police officers and soldiers (pp. 59–62).

Moreover, the female population in Zambia is just now being awarded a more equal opportunity society. This is resulting in a thrust of uneducated, often illiterate women seeking an education (Participant 2). For example, the majority of students in my HIV Education class that was taught by the author of this thesis, and in the Adult

Literacy class, were female. According to one interviewee “that’s the reason you see females coming there. Due to lack of education when they are young, so this is why they want to know what’s going on” (63-64).

According to one community champion, the students are trying to educate themselves now, whereas these opportunities did not exist when they were young (Participant 2, 2013). It is apparent that the country of Zambia once did not provide an environment of equal opportunity in schools and in society at large. This is evident by a large number of uneducated, illiterate females seeking opportunities to learn and take advantage some of the changes taking place in society at large. The AODP’s mandate that focuses on education is directly in line with a dual-gender approach to education.

What’s more, I spent over a month teaching HIV/AIDS awareness and education as a part of the program adult literacy curriculum. I received training from an individual responsible for overseeing the clinics supported by the AODP volunteers. This was one of the most powerful experiences of my time at the AODP. The program was populated mostly by young mothers to middle-aged women who were seeking knowledge on the disease. I formed powerful connections with these women through sharing anecdotes from my life which were relevant to the stigma that exists in relation to the disease.

Furthermore, it was very interesting to hear that the government is turning its focus to young women. However, when I taught adult literacy classes and the 4-week HIV educational class they were both populated with over 90% women. Older generations of women were not always privileged to education, and the AODP is making great strides in educating the women. At the youth level, there are as many young girls in school—the same as the boys; however, there are still barriers to complete equality, such as school uniforms and the girls personal desire to participate.

### **Adaptive (Disability) Sport**

In 2009, The World Health Organization estimated that 650 million people live with disabilities of various natures in the world (Sport & Disability, 2009). Most notably, 80 percent of these individuals live in low-income countries (such as Zambia); most are limited financially with little to no basic social services, including rehabilitation facilities (Sport and Disability, 2009). This rising prevalence of disability, specifically in developing countries such as Zambia, has placed imminent burdens on governments and health care systems (Sport & Disability, 2009). Since the 1970s, there has been a dramatic increase in the number of international organizations and associations serving athletes with disabilities (Sport and Disability, 2009). However, with

rising numbers of individuals with disabilities in developing countries, there continues to be a large gap in adaptive programming. Nevertheless, the advancement and availability of programming for people with disabilities in Western society could provide the expertise and knowledge to establish adaptive programming. Moreover, the AODP may wish to seek to establish partnership, with an organization such as Handicap International; they have enabled thousands of people with disabilities in developing countries to become active in sport and physical activity.

What's more, research in exercise and sport has blossomed in the past few decades (Gill, 1997) and adaptive sport is growing at an unprecedented pace in sports history (Olenik & Steadward, 1994). Examining individuals affected by disabilities is significant as many of these individuals live sedentary lifestyles (Longimor & Bar-Or, 2000). As a result these may experience an increasingly difficult way of life due to their disability (Heath and Fenten, 1997). However, research has shown that increased physical activity can improve the quality of life for this specific populace (Rejenski, Brawley and Schumacher, 1996).

This issue of societal acceptance/or lack thereof is significant to adaptive sport and recreation (Olenik & Steadward, 1994). Researchers have provided evidence that individuals were perceived as 'not normal' when they expressed interest in their involvement (Olenik & Steadward, 1994). Society, at large, perceived adaptive programming as 'not a real sport'. All of the individuals felt society failed to recognize them as athletes (Olenik & Steadward, 1994). In their daily interactions, the athletes experienced pity, told they were brave and were told it would be a nice vacation (Olenik & Steadward, 1994).

The programming for those with disabilities has been noted as not coordinated. There are legitimate concerns about a disconnect concerning the medical profession not being a support network for those with disabilities (Olenik & Steadward, 1994). There are also concerns about the structure of sport organizations that are implementing adaptive programming (Olenik & Steadward, 1994). The majority of these concerns lie within the idea that often there are medical professionals, sport professionals but no combination (Olenik & Steadward, 1994). For the most part, physical education teachers lacked knowledge in integration and educational systems are largely to blame (Olenik & Steadward, 1994).

The literature has noted that it is important to understand individual motivations behind adaptive sport participation (Martin & Smith, 2002). Accordingly to Martin and Smith (2002) a social support system is imperative to the success of adaptive sport. Parental encouragement leads to increased participant enjoyment

(Martin & Smith, 2002). Further, enjoyment and mastery were more significant reasons to participate for these individuals over socialization factors (Martin & Smith, 2002).

The construct of disabilities has been noted as significant. For instance, generally, definitions of disability fall into two categories, medical or social (Thomas, 2012). The medical theory perceives these individuals are those who experienced personal hardship, resulting in loss of function or limitation (Thomas, 2012). However, an alternative model of disability views it as socially constructed where “the responsibility for the disability lies within the society rather than the individual” (p, 106). That being said, seemingly, there is a general consensus among academics that despite that acknowledgment of environmental reasoning, the medical model is the most common definitions and people with a disability have been dominated by the medical profession (Drake, 1994; Oliver, 1990).

According to information published by the Sport for Development International Working Group (SDP IWG) (2007) “in particular, research should attend to those populations disproportionately affected by war, as well as women and persons with a disability” (p. 185). Today, the idea of people with a disability being able to participate in sport and physical activity is not out of the ordinary (Sport and Disability, 2009). In many countries, platforms exist at the grassroots level through to elite competition for people with a disability to display their abilities in sport and physical activity (Sport and Disability, 2009). However, this is not a consistent state around the world, and whilst there has been advancement and progressive change in quality of life for people with disabilities in many developed countries, often this development is not replicated in developing countries (Sport and Disability, 2009).

People with a disability in developing countries often encounter major barriers that limit their access to and participation in sport and physical activity (Sport & Disability, 2009). Within a development context, these barriers impact on both the building up of activity pathways for people with disabilities in developing countries and also on the use of sport and physical activity programs for wider development goals (Sport and Disability, 2009).

In developing countries, including Zambia, people with disabilities often encounter additional barriers to participation in sport and society (Parnes, & Hashemi, 2007; Sherill, 2007). The International Platform for Sport & Development describes the existence of such barriers as “a result of complex issues including attitudes towards disability, traditional and religious beliefs, physical education systems, access to



sporting infrastructure including services, facilities and equipment” (Sport and Disability, 2009, p. 3). Through on-site observations, it is evident that the infrastructure in the developing world has few pathways for individuals with disabilities to become involved in sport or physical activity of any kind.

In the community under study, there are schools specific to children with mental and physical disabilities they attend specialist schools that offer a class for disabled youths and a home that operate as part of a specialized disabled child care project (Participants 3 & 4). Currently, the AODP does not have a system in place to work with disabled youth. However, the organization is confident that if there were disabled students in the schools they worked with, they would make every effort to work with and include these individuals in curriculum (Participants, 3 & 4). While this is a notable comment by participants, it is a paradox, as there are special schools for the individuals with disabilities and, thus, they would not encounter these individuals within their school program.

At the grassroots level, there are few opportunities to participate in adaptive programming and little support for pathways to high-performance development. Furthermore, it is suggested that the organization under focus enter this area and that a potential partnership with an organization such as Cheshire Homes and David Livingstone High School may present an excellent opportunity to help relieve this impending burden on the Zambian health care system. At the grassroots level, expensive equipment and technology are not required in order for people with disabilities to participate, and through inclusive coaching everyone can be encouraged to actively participate in sport (Sport and Disability, 2009). Many games and activities can be designed or adapted to require minimal or no equipment. For instance, if individuals require assistive devices (prosthetics, orthotics, wheelchairs), the ideal situation is to have these items made and maintained locally (Sport and Disability, 2009). There have been many innovative solutions, such as crutches made from bamboo in remote village communities (Sport and Disability, 2009).

Dealing with gender and equal participation presents numerous challenges outlined in the data analysis section of this thesis. Even though the interviewees claim to rarely struggle to get mutual participation, through onsite observation I observed there are often challenges to achieving complete equality. Accordingly, Brady & Banu-Khan (2002) outlined a number of important recommendations for planning and implementing sport and gender programs.

These recommendations include:

1. Retaining girls in the program, and setting the terms for participation; program facilitators must allow girls to enter, exit, and reenter the program with ease.
2. Identifying methods that will guarantee the safety of girls in the program and protect their reputations. For instance, facilitators offer safe walking, adult escorting, transport, and playing games before dark.
3. Providing young women with female role models and mentors in the community. For instance, this involves leaders that support the girls and assist with issues they may be experiencing within the community.
4. Inspiring girls to express themselves, promote decision-making, and foster leadership. It is noteworthy that in the context of physical activity, girls may radically alter their behavior in the presence of boys. For instance, they may withdraw, avoid situations, or display introverted behaviors (Brady & Banu-Khan, 2002). Thus, it is critical to provide girls with opportunities for single-sex activities and “girls only” spaces in certain athletic situations.
5. Encourage boys to be more respectful: As noted previously, gender is a relational construct; the meanings of feminine attributes are often defined only in relation or opposition to characteristics of masculinity. It has been proposed that when girls succeed or take on new and unconventional roles, boys’ perceptions of them change favorably and there are opportunities for boys to adopt enlightened views regarding the place of girls in sport.

Furthermore, recommendations from sport and gender programs advocate the significance of employing the participation of young women through program design, and encouraging the leadership, development, and safety once they are involved (Brady, 2005 & Hargreaves, 1999). Finally, an increased amount of research is needed to discover how and why sport is an effective vehicle for enabling the health of young girls and women, and to discover which women are still excluded and why (Brady & Banu-Khan, 2002).

What’s more, sport can play a powerful role in the lives and communities of people with disabilities (“Sport and Disability”, 2009). There is a wealth of evidence to support participation in sport and physical activity for people with a disability concerning trends, barriers and benefits of participation (Parnes & Hashemi, 2007; Sherill, 2007). Numerous studies have showed that physical activity and sport participation can lead to advancement in functional status and quality of life among people with certain disabilities (Sport &

Disability, 2009).

Moreover, integration and inclusion of people with disabilities in mainstream sport has been an area of focus in recent decades and has resulted in new opportunities for participation and competition (Sport & Disability, 2009). Thus, organizations such as the AODP may have to take proactive action. This action may create pathways for individuals with disabilities to participate in physical activity.

### **Section Two: Sport For Development Program Checklist (B. Kidd, 2011)**

This section now discusses each of the Kidd (2011) SFD Program Checklist items. The items are numbered prior to the discussion of each section.

1. Participants must feel that the program equates to their needs and that they have been conferred within the design and execution of initiatives.

Foremost, a person-centered methodology to the provision of sports opportunities is essential to its success in improving disorderly conduct (Andrews & Andrews, 2003). According to Andrews and Andrews (2003) “the activity must be focused for the individual, and it must recognize both the intricacies and particularities of the individual’s motivations as well as the meaning and value that sports participation holds for the individual” (p. 23).

Andrews and Andrews (2003) further support the use of those sporting activities that do not focus on the outcome of the game. Instead, the activities are personalized to individual needs and accentuate selection for participants and positive feedback (Andrews & Andrews, 2003). Further, these results are reinforced by other analyses of delinquency and sports participation (Smith & Waddington, 2004).

For the first time, at the end of the school term, the coordinator and I created a feedback form and a term quiz. The students now have a voice to express concerns with the design and execution of the weekly curriculum during class. The class reported that a very large majority absolutely loved the class and rated the class perfect on the end-of-term quiz. It is notable that the term quiz and the feedback form were different components, with the feedback being anonymous.

However, there were options for the students to voice their opinions on new ways to design and execute the class. It is noteworthy that, these students are usually quite young (grades 2–6) and therefore do not always have their long term best interests in mind when addressing the design and execution of the course. Additionally, as mentioned, without the AODP sports programming, these children would never have the

opportunity to experience physical education classes. Thereby, they are extremely appreciative of the volunteers, community leaders and the time we spend with them.

2. Participants must have authentic access (equipment, transportation) to initiatives (safe, personally valued, socially connected, morally/economically supported, personally/politically empowered).

The following guidelines from Donnelly and Coakley (2002) would contribute to creating positive and inclusive sport spaces. Participants should feel “physically safe, personally valued, socially connected, morally and economically supported, personally and politically empowered, and hopeful about the future” (p.16). Fortunately for the youth that are participating in the AODP sports programming, the program provides all of the equipment necessary, including driving them to their school. Thus, they do not have to have access to equipment and transportation.

All sports programming takes place at the same locations in the community school play areas. However, on Fridays at one particular school, the play area used is a short walk away from the school. Therefore, the other volunteers and I would walk with the students both to the site and back to class, focusing on the safety of the students at all times.

During my 3 month experience, there was always at least one other volunteer and I teaching physical education classes. In addition to volunteers, usually there were also two experienced community leaders with us at all times. First, we were versed by the staff in regards to the child protection policy that was required to be upheld to at all times. It is noteworthy, that in the community it is acceptable in their culture to punish a child by using physical force. However, through three months of on-site observations, I feel confident in saying that all the volunteers supported the youth in every way possible. For instance, throughout the latter stages of my experience I became very close to many of these children and began serving as a role model.

3. Initiatives must ascertain skilled, knowledgeable professionals in the roles of administrators, coaches and teachers.

According to the SDP IWG the skills and passion of trained, committed administrators, coaches and volunteers is key to the success of child- and youth-focused sport programs. Moreover, to Ewing, Gano-Overway, Branta and Seefeldt (2002) suggest that

coaches play a key role in developing the moral and ethical parameters that impact youth involved in sport. This research indicates that the moral values and behavior

learned by children in sport come directly from instruction and their own engagement, and indirectly from observing coaches' responses (p. 37).

The coaches and teachers were a combination of local coordinators that acted as translators and liaisons in unison with volunteers from all over the world. The local coordinators were generally skilled in the areas of youth leadership, personal skills, and conflict resolution. For instance, there was one coordinator who was famous within the city. He was an energetic, personable, compassionate leader who created an atmosphere suitable for education and fun with an appropriate level of structure. These individuals truly represent the trust the community has in the organization and the relationship that has been built over years of work within the city.

4. The benefits of sport/participation initiatives cannot be valued in isolation from social/material conditions. To attain success, initiatives must be linked to other development programs, specifically in education/health/employment and youth development.

Additionally, the SDP IWG literature review purported

future research should begin to make connections between theory and findings from peace literature and contemporary understandings of sport and sporting practices. More research specifically examining sport and peace is needed, both in terms of program evaluation and policy development. (p. 185)

Throughout my review of literature and experience in collecting and analyzing data I became more convinced that sport can be an important intervention, not on its own necessarily, but through coinciding with other development initiatives. Thereby, sports programs must be united with non-sports programming including education/health/employment if more expansive objectives are to be cultivated. Researchers described the incorporation of sport with other traditional development areas as a "sports-plus program" (B. Kidd, 2011).

It is notable that very few of the influential international development journals include sport in development strategies (Amin, 1974; Balassa, 1978; Bhagwati, 1985). Moreover, even contemporary documents on development where one may anticipate discussion of the recent growth of SFD also failed to examine this relationship (Desai & Potter, 2002; Hettne, 1995; Kingsbury, Remenyi, McKay, & Hunt, 2004). Furthermore, in order to witness exponential growth of the discipline, influential development journals and/or contemporary journals must shift their focus to the examination of this relationship.

Accordingly, in recent years a number of sport researchers have begun to focus on the relationship

between sport and development (Coalter, 2005; Chappell, 2004; Darby, 2002; B. Kidd, 2011). Authors have examined research gaps; the importance of ongoing monitoring and evaluation; and the potential for a development program to integrate sport, referred so as a sport-plus program (B. Kidd, 2011). This growth is mirrored in the advancement of sport as playing a more vital role in the program in the community under study as well.

Literature underscores the importance of increased monitoring and evaluating to understand how to harness the potential of sport as an important development strategy (B. Kidd, 2011). This statement also is true in the context of the AODP operation under study. Thereby, one could argue for the dynamic state of development and the exploration of sport as an addition to traditional key development practices such as health and education. B. Kidd (2010) thereby concludes that SFD remains a promising field but also largely unproven at this time. B. Kidd (2011) believes that if sport can make a unique contribution to development, policy makers and scholars must be aware of this contribution. The SDP IWG (2007) stated that

the evident benefits appear to be an indirect outcome of the context and social interaction that is possible in sport, rather than a direct outcome of participating in sport, critical analysis of a broad range of research findings provides overwhelming support for this conclusion (p. 24).

Further, Kidd (2011) indicated that data collection has provided evidence that there is a positive correlation with school retention and increased performance scores in some subjects in SFD programs. In addition, sport is positively linked to self-esteem (Kidd, 2011). The aforementioned evidence is important and reaffirms the importance the AODP in the community schools where sport programming is not provided.

Additionally, it is not only academic literature that overlooks the growth of SFD initiatives worldwide. Beyond some prominent exceptions, the majority of development agencies including the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund have failed to document the relationship (Levermore, 2008). According to Levermore (2008b), it is too early for sport to be considered an effective instrument for international development. This is partially due to the wide-ranging gaps in SFD literature. The United Nations (2003) believes “sport is seen as a by-product of development, not as an engine” (p. 2).

Additionally, assertions regarding the “messianic” potential of sport are unproven and often “vague, rhetoric and extravagant” rather than practical (Hartmann & Kwauk, 2011).

Further, Hartmann and Kwauk (2011) argue “beliefs about the impact of sport in development are driven mainly by heartfelt narratives, evocativeness and quotable sound bites of individual and community transformation, package delivered by those running the program” (p. 120). Kidd (2011) proposed

if SFD is to succeed, advocates and practitioners need to distance themselves from messianic claims of the international documents and monitoring and evaluation by photo op and to develop rigorous community appropriate measures to evaluate what is actually being conducted on ground (p. 11).

What’s more, sport policy makers, officials, and advocates quite often have very basic knowledge of development and the correlation of sport (Hartmann & Kwauk, 2011; & Peet, 1999). As such, programs are often misguided and counterproductive. The author of this thesis, thus, finds it logical to promote that research programs should entail much more than monitoring and evaluation programs. They should include studies to evaluate whether stated activities, outcomes, and impacts have been performed and accomplished, along with an educational component.

In many situations SFD initiatives are inadequately designed and do not offer scientific evidence about their productiveness (Coalter, 2010b; Kidd, 2011; Levermore, 2008; Lyras, 2007, 2009, 2010). There is also limited research on the adequate conditions and methods required to accomplish constructive results in specific settings (Coalter, 2007b; Jarvie, 2003). This indicates a gap in the scientific evidence on how sport can help exert social change. It is important to note that this research study does not focus on determining the adequacy of sport as a vehicle for development; however, this is an excellent future study.

Although sport is utilized, unfortunately, the power of sport as a vehicle for development largely remains unproven (Levermore, 2008b; Smith & Waddington, 2004). This means that case studies are needed in order to provide evidence of the value/lack of value of sport as a medium for SFD. The author of this paper purports that there must be a paradigm shift in parent discipline in order to advance SFD and peace to receive heightened attention in order to develop understandings concerning the advances and success that could be possible. This shift involves a significant value in relation to broader development goals and, for this author; it involves the fundamental concept of sustainable development.

Furthermore, sport has become an important part of their development portfolio that can help create and maintain strong ties in the communities they are active in as well as proving to be an effective tool to

combat traditional barriers experienced in these communities (reference removed for confidentiality). Currently, the sports programming at the AODP is designed with a curriculum that addresses health and education as well as uniquely crafted programs that integrate knowledge of the three development areas (Journal, 2013).

Additionally, prior to each PE session there is a 15- minute education component which is then followed by a physical portion which directly relates to this educational component (Journal, 2013). Students are then quizzed at the end of the day as well as the end of the term to gauge their knowledge on relevant subject matter. Also, educational programming is conducted at the same community schools where the sports programs take place in the afternoon. However, the sport and the educational components are largely unrelated. Moreover, the health programs are unrelated to the education and sport components. These programs are operated at local clinics with a focus on the community as a whole rather than the education/sport components which are focused on the youth.

5. Programs must be sustainable and have long term individual/community impact: (See: **Scale and Sustainability in Section 1** for information pertaining to this proposition).
6. Monitoring and evaluation must be suitable to the projected beneficiaries and outcomes. If the program is to be employed by outsider practitioners, the outcomes must be shared with the participants and published in open sources.

As mentioned, the field of SFD has grown rapidly over the past few years. This point is further exemplified by the 382 names put forward in Nike Ashoka Change maker award for a Better World Collaborative Competition, in 2008. In addition, 500 people now work in the field of SFD, in Zambia alone (Levermore, 2011). The evolving nature of SFD makes effective monitoring and evaluation of initiatives evermore vital to the field (Levermore, 2011).

The United Nations Development Program states that “without effective planning, monitoring and evaluation, it would be impossible to see if the program was moving in the right direction, whether progress can be claimed and how future efforts might be improved” (UNDP, 2009, p. 5). Further, the UN Development Program believes that “programs and projects with strong monitoring and evaluation components tend to stay on track” (UNDP, 2009, p. 7). What’s more, the UNICEF (2006) argues that it is essential to construct evidence that is simply anecdotal and to effectively monitor and employ effective, sustainable SFD programming.

However, the rationale behind evaluation is questioned, due to the expensive, time consuming, often technically complex nature of these processes (Levermore, 2011). What’s more, the findings often “lag



behind reality”, go unread, don’t always answer the right question, lack analytical rigor, and have access to limited availability of quantitative data (Levermore, 2011). At the heart of these critical views of evaluation is a quizzical nature of the fundamental assumption that evaluation can be a rational and objective process (Levermore, 2011). It should be noted that sport is not conducive to standard, quantifiable or easy medium to attempt to analyze (Levermore, 2011). Thereby, evaluation can often serve as an afterthought in the development of the structure and strategy of development organizations (Levermore, 2011).

Accordingly, for an organization such as the AODP, it is important to understand different approaches to monitoring and evaluating the ongoing performance of their development programming. These monitoring and evaluation techniques are provided to help serve as a guide for the AODP when creating future monitoring and evaluation templates. The Swiss Development Agency for Development and Cooperation Controlling Unit (SDC; 2000) developed an all-encompassing, effective instrument that can help serve as a manual prior to an evaluation (SDC, 2000). The Development Assistance Committee (1991) define evaluation as

an assessment, as systematic and objective as possible, of an ongoing or completed project, program or policy, its design, implementation and results. The aim is to determine the relevance and fulfillment of objective, developmental efficiency, effectiveness, impact and sustainability. An evaluation should provide information that is credible and useful, enabling the incorporation of lessons learned into decision making process of both recipients and donors (p. 25).

Pope and Nauright (2009) argued that future research should attempt to highlight critical, cross-disciplinary approaches while focusing on multiplicity, pluralism, and integration. Future focus of research should address power relations and the necessity of making results available to the participants of a study (Levermore & Beacom, 2012). The high cost of publications often prohibits individuals and communities in the global south from analyzing and disputing the results of a study (Levermore & Beacom, 2012). Moreover, the implication of research is minimal if scholars are merely writing for one another, rather than engaging in two way communication with the subjects of their research (Levermore & Beacom, 2012). Mintzberg (2008) stated, “researchers can only talk to each other, then they ultimately serve nobody; they form a closed system which ingests resources and offers nothing in return” (p. 12).

The Development Assistance Committee (DAC) report entitled “Principles for Evaluation and

Development Assistance” (OCED) was published in Paris, 1991. Accordingly, the principles set forth provide guidance on the role of evaluation in the aid management process, with the following important messages:

1. Aid agencies should have an evaluation policy with a clearly defined strategy and methods and a clear definition of their role and responsibilities and their place in the institutional structure.
2. The evaluation process should be unbiased and independent from the process that deals with policy making, and the delivery and management of development assistance.
3. The evaluation process must be as open as possible, with the results made widely available. For evaluations to be useful, they must be utilized. Feedback to policy makers and operational staff is essential.
4. Partnership with recipients and donor cooperation in aid evaluation are both important; they are an essential part of recipient institution building and of aid coordination and may reduce administrative afflictions on recipients.
5. Aid evaluation necessitates that donor cooperation in aid evaluation cooperate in evaluation processes. Clear identification of the goals which an activity is to achieve is an essential prerequisite for objective evaluation.

The main purposes of an evaluation are: to improve future aid policy, programs, and projects through feedback of lessons learned; and to provide a basis for accountability including the provision of information to the public (DAC, 1991). What is an evaluation? It involves setting planned objectives in addition to a desired result (DAC, 1991). Without specific goals set forth prior to evaluating a project, there is little hope to monitor and evaluate the effectiveness of a strategy. Furthermore, it is imperative that the AODP ensures proper coordination between planning, evaluation, monitoring, and transference into action (PEMT).

Are we doing the right thing? Are we doing things right? What lessons can we draw from our experiences, and what can we learn to help us dealing with similar situations (SDC, 2000)? These questions are an essential part of overseeing the vision and guiding within international development cooperation programs, such as the one in Zambia (SDC, 2000). These aspects of development strategy can be formulated and answered by means of an evaluation (SDC, 2000).

Moreover, while the objective of planning and monitoring requires ongoing stewardship for projects and programs execution prior to and during the process, evaluation only requires analysis after the final

stage of the project or program (SDC, 2000). As a supplement to monitoring and evaluation, evaluation addresses questions of objectives and the effectiveness of our activities (SDC, 2000). Accordingly, while monitoring is perpetually occurring, evaluating is always a special event (SDC, 2000). For example, the objective of an evaluation can be

1. To examine collaboration in detail (SDC, 2000).
2. To verify the impacts, objectives of efficiency and therefore account for them (SDC, 2000).
3. To address specific questions related to the project or program context (SDC, 2000).
4. To draw lessons for the next phase of the project (SDC, 2000).
5. To gather information (SDC, 2000).

Furthermore, management should evaluate the project in relation to the lessons can be drawn from experiences, and what can be useful to help the organization in dealing with similar situations (SDC, 2000). These questions are an essential part of overseeing the vision and guiding within international development cooperation programs, such as the one in Zambia (SDC, 2000). These aspects of development strategy can be formulated and answered by means of an evaluation (SDC, 2000).

## **CHAPTER FIVE: CONCLUSION**

This thesis involved an exploration of a case study of SFD best practices in the context of an AODP within Zambia, Africa. Overall, this research sought to offer an understanding of community development through participation, as the thesis author travelled to Zambia in order to study the SFD program. This allowed the author to develop a deep understanding of the program. The researcher was in Africa from September 11, 2013 until December 16, 2013 for a total of 12 weeks immersed in the Livingstone Project. The two research questions guiding the study were:

1. What are the sport for development best practices from the context of an AODP?
2. How can understandings of the sport for development program under study in the African context advance SFD theory?

To answer the research questions, in part, this thesis utilized three data collection methods. The first data collection involved document collection, the second involved in depth interviews, and the third involved observations of the case. Each of the three data collection methods and their subsequent analysis was framed with the Sport for Development and Peace International Working Group Secretariat (SDP IWG) (2007) best practices. Additionally, the data collection and analysis involved the Curado and Bontis (2007) three areas of capital in the MIC Matrix and the Coalter (2006) Sport-in-Development Logic Model.

### **Response to research question 1: What are the sport for development best practices from the context of an AODP?**

The SFD best practices from the AODP were seen to impact the projects sustainability. It is, thus, recommended that sustainability should be added to extend the SDP IWG (2007) best practices. First, the program has made great strides to become integrated into the community and have a high level of goodwill built up in the community through a variety of excellent initiatives that focus on culturally specific needs. This aided to entrench the program within the community and, thus, aided the projects potential long term sustainability.

Second, sustainable programming strategies emphasized the employment of long-term sport community development and participation initiatives. To meet this sustainability strategy, the organization has ascertained a number of skilled, knowledgeable professionals in the roles of administrators, coaches, and teachers from the local community, including from the indigenous population. These community champions served as role models to the participants in the sport program and are the backbone of the organization. It is recommended that the youth voice be integrated to further the sustainability of the program. Additionally, the unemployed

women population should also be integrated. These recommendations will be discussed further below.

Third, this SFD program has a synergy with the created culturally specific needs based programming. The author was particularly impressed with the HIV seminar content and presentation strategies that were offered during the adult literacy classes. Also, the physical education curriculum employed creative programming that educated students on topics including the HIV/AIDS epidemic. The newly reformed sport program does an excellent job in educating the youth in areas beyond sport—using sport as the medium.

Fourth, with respect to their community partnerships, the organization should be commended for their efforts concerning the ongoing relationship with the two education institutions. It is recommended that the AODP encourage programming adaptations within these institutions in order to serve female participation, such as adapting the uniform to all for sport participation. As discussed, the literature recommended partnering with multiple interests groups that share the organizations goal of developing the community. This does not necessarily mean it must be a health, education, or sport related organization. It is important to give voices to community members that may not be heard and, therefore,

Fifth, it is recommended that the program expand their partnerships within the community. Each of these partnerships should assist in ensuring the local voices are heard within this program. The author of this thesis supports that the African organization AODP should pursue a youth participant training program, similar to that of the “barefoot sport administrators program,” in South Africa. his course was to empower potential sports administrators from underprivileged communities (Boshoff, 1997). More specifically, the goal was to actively identify and recruit current and prospective sports administrators from marginalized communities and to train them with basic administrative and organizational skills (Boshoff, 1997). By expanding the knowledge and skills of sports administrators and managers, it was envisioned that future sport initiatives could be developed by communities themselves (Boshoff, 1997), thereby positively impacting program sustainability. . Community empowerment was at the heart of the initiative (Boshoff, 1997).

In the future, this relationship could also be expanded, for example, to include a number of unemployed women that could start a program concerning their challenges getting jobs in the community. This could entrench this group of women in the program to further the sustainability of the project. It is important to note, however, it should be noted that, when individuals are engaged in a community program and they do not get results, they become frustrated and will leave the program. Thereby, this extended program must be realistic

concerning these women and establish strategies to work with them to express their feelings, doubts, and goals in order to aid them to achieve their goals.

Moreover, expanding the program and shifting Boshoff (1997) recognized the implication of enabling a process of collective self-empowerment through the attainment of social power. Social power refers to the extent communities have to access knowledge, training, finance, and so on (Boshoff, 1997). Including the community unemployed women in the program may aid in the long term sustainability of the program.

Sixth, the curriculum established by the organizers focused on what was identified as being the greatest needs: the running of the clubs and the organizing of events in the sports club (Boshoff, 1997). Despite the retention of the necessary knowledge, the success of the course was dependent on the ability of the sport administrators to get things done (Boshoff, 1997). The critical requirement, however, was retaining the necessary knowledge and expertise. Accordingly, Staudt (1991) stated that effective community development “depends on the managerial capabilities present within community organizations” (p. 30). This program was run by competent and caring individuals that showed a concern for the local community.

Seventh, it is the belief of this author through the analysis of the current state of the AODP program that a monitoring and evaluation initiative is an important step to create a more sustainable program that will run more efficiently and effectively through the proper use of valuable resources. There are many different ways to monitor and evaluate an organization, hopefully the researcher has provided with enough information to create movement towards engaging in this very important initiative.

Eighth, further, individuals with a disability in developing countries face major barriers that limit their access to and participation in sport and physical activity. Within a development context, these barriers impact on both the building up of activity pathways for people with disabilities in developing countries and also on the use of sport and physical activity programs for wider development goals. The impending burdens placed upon governments and the lack of participation in the developing world in international disabled competition, the lack of grassroots organizations all justify the establishment of adaptive sport programming by the AODP. The African organization has the opportunity to take a leadership role for the continent through the creation of a sport and disability project.

## **Response to Research Question 2: How can understandings of the SFD program under study in**

### **the African context advance SFD Theory?**

This research served to support multiple facets of SFD theory. First, this research defined sustainability theory in the literature review as the capacity of a SFD project to be sustained if the organization under study cancelled the project. This research served to add support to this theory as the project. The research added support as the project under study worked to be entrenched within the community and this was found to be a best practice. Further, this research recommended extending the project to include the voice of other groups, such as the youth and unemployed women in an effort to advance project sustainability. These voices add a tenant to the areas of focus within sustainability.

Second, the resource-based view theory indicated that a project could be viewed from a product angle as well as a resource angle. This research, thus, added understanding on the resource-based angle for this case when it revealed that there was a gap in local services as the community needs were not being fulfilled. This included the local youth, and particularly opportunities for girls and those with disabilities to participate. The appropriate resources are needed to support filling this gap. The resources include leadership, sports fields and equipment. The product angle review revealed that what was being offered could be extended to other community groups that a synergy was happening between sport, health and educational goals that could be further enhance. Also, the product was focused on the local needs but the locals were not currently directing the programming.

Third, silo theory indicates that sectors work in isolation. This research supported that collaboration with the community offers greater integration and sustainability, as well as more impact on the community. This means that the project managers must be aware of a tendency to work in a silo and the need to break away from silo-thinking to cooperative thinking for greater project advancements.

This author purports that theory can act alone to tell us about a phenomenon. In combination, however, they offer a larger picture and greater understandings, and in this case the advanced understanding concern SFD in a Zambian project. The support for sustainability theory, the resource-based view and silo theory found in this research did not extend the theories, but did offer insight. A synergy of insights on SFD projects can aid our overall understandings of SFD. Thus research, thus, was one project study in this synergistic body of work that is now being advanced.

In conclusion, according to Moyo (2009) “the 1970s were an exciting time to be African. Many of

our nations had just achieved independence, and with that came a deep sense of dignity, self-respect and hope for the future (p. 4) Moyo (2009), a woman born and educated in Zambia believed that traditional aid programs were doing more harm than good for countries such as Zambia. There were several factors that played a role in the ineffective traditional aid programs in sub-Saharan Africa. First, government corruption continued to exist, plaguing legitimate efforts to assist these communities (Moyo, 2009). Already 50\$ Billion dollars in aid goes to Africa each year and cries for more aid keep coming (Moyo, 2009). Moyo (2009) stated, as recently as 2002, the African Union, an organization of African nations, appraised that corruption was costing the region \$150 billion a year, as international donors were seemingly ignoring that the aid money was inadvertently fueling illegal payouts (Moyo, 2009).

Accordingly, traditional forms of development and aid are not seen to be working effectively. As such, the AODP is justified in only directing funds at sustainable programs and projects rather than donating lump sums of money to government organizations. The AODP has strategically avoided such programs and focuses on empowering the community from within, using a bottom up approach (Moyo, 2009)

### **Implications**

As a field novice researcher, I had completed extensive literature research on SFD. However, through my experiences I learned numerous lessons that can help contribute to future case studies and the overall development of SFD theory. First, the literature expressed the importance of taking time to access the cultural environment prior to completing the research. This research focused on developing relationships within the community prior to starting the research. The results extend the literature by supporting the strategy of developing relationships first as this aided my ability to learn and access vital data and receive unfiltered opinions about the current state of development in the community. Accordingly, time spent before any data collection is just as important in a when understanding a community and how to empower the locale.

Second, sports plus programs have been an area of focus in recent years by researchers in the SFD field. The literature indicates that SFD needs to be integrated in a more advanced manner and not operate in a silo. This notion was reaffirmed with this research as the AODP is currently operating in departmental silos and it is recommended that SFD be integrated fully with education and health services efforts.

Third, the participatory action approach (PAR) utilized by such researchers such as Wendy Frisby has not been employed extensively in the SFD context. Seemingly, donors are often looking for large



participation numbers, focusing on quantitative numbers rather than stimulating youth demonstrating high levels of potential as leaders in their community. This research contributed by finding this to be the case and recommending that youth leaders be included in future studies.

The implication is that this study does not imply that all African SFD organizations can be viewed in the same manner. Case study research findings must be used with caution and much additional research is required as the results may not be applicable to other SFD cases.

### **Recommendations**

Despite the vast increase of the use of sport for social and economic development, including the Journal of SFD ([www.jfsd.org](http://www.jfsd.org)) and the International Platform on Sport and Development ([www.sportanddev.org](http://www.sportanddev.org)), it has been stated that it is still too early for sport to be taken seriously as a platform for international development (Levermore, 2008a). This is partly due to the wide-ranging gaps in the sport–development relationship and our knowledge in the subject area (B. Kidd, 2011; Levermore, 2008a, 2008b; & Levermore & Beacom, 2012). Even though there are proven short-term benefits, specifically from smaller initiatives, Levermore (2008b) states that “there is a tendency for claims to be vague, rhetorical, and extravagant rather than realistic” (p. 64). Researchers are still in search for substantive evidence that sport should be taken seriously as a new engine for stimulating development (Levermore, 2008a, 2008b). Accordingly, through on-site observation, I witnessed that societal acceptance of disabilities is different from that in the north. Those with disabilities are in separate schools, separated from general able bodied programming. Thus, there is a lack of integration of individuals who live with a disability (Journal, 2013). It seems the lack of societal acceptance or recognition of these individuals is exacerbated in Africa. The individuals are seemingly marginalized, segregated, and in need of assistance from organizations such as the NGO I researched and volunteered for during my stay in Africa. It is imperative that the African organization understand the complexities that arise when implementing adaptive program and thus, must develop an understanding of the correct procedures, models and strategies that are important when employing adaptive sport and or recreation.

Further, sustainable programming strategies should emphasize the employment of long-term sport community development and participation initiatives (Boshoff, 1997; Burnett & Hollander, 1999; Chalip & Green, 1998; Green, 2005; Green & Chalip, 1997). Empowerment through participation means communities and organizations increase their ability to oversee their own undertakings; being people oriented places emphasis on

human and social development (Florin & Wandermann, 1990). The AODP employed several community representatives that assisted in the on-site operations and were essential in the success of the organization in the community. These individuals met with the AODP staff members on a weekly basis to discuss the direction of the programming (Journal, 2013).

Overall, the AODP under study has partnerships in education, however it could benefit from expanding its partnership base and teaming up with a variety of organizations throughout the community. The literature describes the importance of long-term community-based participation initiatives, another area where the AODP could work on developing projects. The following recommendations also underline the challenges in engaging all community members, especially in an environment where individuals are more worried about having enough to eat or sending their children to school.

Accordingly, practical strategies for growth are recommended by the researcher. Moreover, the existence of three, largely independent initiatives of teaching, medical, and sports has a great potential to create what is referred to as a “sports plus program.” This means that the groups would move away from the silo situation to one where there is cross departmental knowledge sharing, innovation and synergies. The organization hopes to assist another community school through building a secure wall-fence, a teacher’s house, and classroom block (reference removed for confidentiality). What’s more, the organization hopes to oversee an alteration of a community clinic into a district hospital (reference removed for confidentiality).

As previously discussed, the current socio economic state in this community and the country of Zambia has resulted in the dependency on such organizations. For instance, the AODP addressed the HIV/AIDS epidemic through the establishment of HIV/AIDS awareness courses with a sports curriculum that puts emphasis on the HIV/AIDS epidemic through creative activities and educational lessons. Furthermore, the AODP has been instrumental in helping community schools through a number of different initiatives including: sponsorships, book donations, and refurbishment/construction projects. It is recommended that the organization further its efforts to build sustainable programming throughout the community with a focus on areas of need including HIV/AIDS awareness, SFD programming and sustainable forms of development. It is noted that such endeavors as book donations are significant; however, the organization must continue to focus on community empowerment programs as outlined in this section.

This research, however, illustrates that SFD is a serious platform, albeit in the primary stages of

development. There is support for Nicholls (2009) call for rigorous, scientific proof to validate the field.

Importantly, the dichotomy in relation to socioeconomic development in countries including Zambia is a topic that presents ongoing debate. This begs the question, what should be or should not be done with respect to SFD to help the communities that exist in these countries? This research supports that a SFD project is multi-faceted and should include the employment of strategic community programming on the basis of collaborative and integrative sport, health care and education. This recommendation extends the literature finding by Levermore (2008a) stating that moving forward requires researchers to consider the strengths sport has in advancing holistic development goals including:

conflict resolution, cultural understanding, infrastructure development, educational awareness, empowerment, physical and mental health improvements, and economic development through foreign direct investment and sport tourism (p. 64).

Further, it is recommended that organizations set specific goals, objectives, and in particular establish effective monitoring and evaluation practices. SFD programming must focus on sustainable development. Central to this strategy is the importance of training, educating and making leaders from the community youth and indigenous voice. The AODP must concentrate their efforts on building leaders in these communities to ensure the effectiveness and longevity of the program for the particular context. To support the recommendations, the author has attached several recommended models in the Appendix that may help serve as a practical guide to these processes and procedures (See Appendix, B, C, D, E, F and G).

Moreover, this research supports the literature stating that the co creation of knowledge is a characteristic of community development achieved through participation and needs-based culturally sensitive programming. The politics of partnerships is often addressed through the concept of power relations and the dominant visions imposed by northern organizations. This research extends that literature purporting that it is important that donor-driven priorities do not result in a mission drift in a development organization, wherein organizations are forced to ignore important social components in order to simply focus on their sport programs to maintain a consistent participation base (Hartmann & Kwauk, 2011).

Evaluations can be conducted in a variety of different ways and be done on the basis of an individual project (project evaluation), numerous projects on a similar theme (cross-sector analysis), a broader country program (all programs and projects within one country), or a regional policy (SDC, 2000). Accordingly,

Africa Impact Livingstone may wish to explore using a cross-sector analysis and evaluate their sport, education, and medical all under the same evaluation template to help reduce the use of resources and to help create synergy. However, if the sports program is the only project that is being evaluated they may wish to use a project evaluation (SDC, 2000). An evaluation makes it possible to scrutinize the five criteria and aims of a plan: sustainability, relevance, efficiency, effectiveness, and impact (See: Appendix C).

Does the context in which the organization operates always make is suitable for an evaluation? For the majority of organizations, evaluation is already built into a strategy between partners. Due to the fact that evaluation continuously represents a significant event in the course of operations, this requires commitment and involves great risks as well as opportunities. Therefore, the necessity and practicality of conducting an evaluation must always be examined in detail. Appendix D will help serve as guides to help examine the necessity and practically of conducting one such evaluation.

Additionally, it is importance to consider the two main evaluation types in the context of your organization: self-evaluation and external evaluation (SDC, 2000). Appendix E outlines the idea of timing (before the project begins, during the project, on completing the project, and after completing the project) (SDC, 2000). Additionally, Appendix F outlines the evaluation type: (a) identification (evaluation type) (b) “interim” evaluation (mid-term) (c) final evaluation and (d) post evaluation (SDC, 2000).

Further, the SDC (2000) describes the strengths of an external evaluation as a distant and independent nature of the evaluation type which has a propensity to be more objective over an internal evaluation (SDC, 2000). Thus, the weaknesses of this approach include the substantial effort it requires to complete such a comprehensive evaluation and the time frame constraints may limit the evaluation (SDC, 2000). Further, the costs of an external evaluation may be much greater than an internal evaluation, providing only a snapshot of an organization; however a prior internal evaluation can reduce external costs (SDC, 2000). External evaluations are suitable for factual issues and relatively complex situations and overall appraisals (SDC, 2000).

Additionally, the SDC (2000) describes the self-evaluation as work to be completed from an internal analysis standpoint. The strengths of this type of appraisal include the fact that the evaluators have detailed, comprehensive knowledge on the program/project (SDC, 2000). They are also less tied to time constraints and have the option to be flexible and adjust actions mid-evaluation (SDC, 2000). What’s more, the idea of being self-critical can lead to team building and increasing cooperation among employees (SDC, 2000).

Appendix G outlines the characteristics of self-evaluation and external evaluation from the project/program standpoint.

The other possibility for an organization is a hybrid model of the two evaluation techniques discussed in this analysis, that being a combination of self and external evaluation (see Appendix H). This can be done because both methods complement each other to a certain degree (SDC, 2000). A self-evaluation that is done with external agents can help reduce the anxiety and resistance of the internal group (SDC, 2000). Both processes can help assist with the learning curve and lead to an understanding of project reality (SDC, 2000). For an organization model such as Africa Impact, a hybrid model may serve as an excellent strategic decision; as mentioned above, the two evaluations help assist with the learning curve for both agents. The external agent can gain the detailed and specific knowledge held by the organization, while the external agent can help reduce fears about the result of conducting such a unique event. After the external agent has assisted in the first analysis and process of monitoring and evaluation, the employees will be less anxious and more apt to conduct such an evaluation on their own in the future.

There are several challenges moving forward when deciding to monitor and evaluate their programs/projects. First, fear often plagues organizations when the idea of an internal review is brought up (SDC, 2000). The potential for losing valuable resources to an unproven process in addition to the concern about whether the results will be favorable in the minds of their donors, stakeholders, staff, and participants comes into play. This is why the author of this thesis recommends a hybrid style evaluation technique that will combine the internal expertise and the objective outsourced, professional organization to achieve a common goal. Also, it is important to understand that without specific, set visions for the future of the organization and accompanying goals, a comprehensive evaluation will be difficult/if not impossible to achieve (SDC, 2000).

Further, it is recommended that organizations set specific goals, objectives, and in particular establish effective monitoring and evaluation practices. SFD programming must focus on sustainable development. Central to this strategy is the importance of training, educating and making leaders from the community youth and indigenous voice. The AODP must concentrate their efforts on building leaders in these communities to ensure the effectiveness and longevity of the program for the particular context. To support the recommendations, the author has attached several recommended models in the Appendix that may help serve as a practical guide to these processes and procedures (See Appendix, B, C, D, E, F and G).

Moreover, this research supports the literature stating that the co creation of knowledge is a characteristic of community development achieved through participation and needs-based culturally sensitive programming. The politics of partnerships is often addressed through the concept of power relations and the dominant visions imposed by northern organizations. This research extends that literature purporting that it is important that donor-driven priorities do not result in a mission drift in a development organization, wherein organizations are forced to ignore important social components in order to simply focus on their sport programs to maintain a consistent participation base (Hartmann & Kwauk, 2011).

This thesis promotes the continuation of research in the field of SFD. Future research is proposed below.

### **Future Research**

There are numerous areas of research that can be of focus in this primary stage of SFD research. For instance, future research should make a stronger attempt to address power relations and the importance of making publications available to participants or organizations of study. As noted, the high cost of publications often limits the individuals in the global south from accessing information that could lead to knowledge transfer and skill development. This has created a paradigm which is a closed system, where the participants of the study are unable to access the information. Thereby, the academics and merely writing for one another, however this is a problem that exists beyond issues of SFD studying in the Global South. However, it is of particular relevance to this discipline.

Further, for researchers, the co-creation of knowledge is imperative. Accordingly, researchers such as Frisby (2005) have demonstrated the success of the PAR method. I believe this is an excellent strategy for conducting research in the global south. It is important to realize there are multiple communities that could be studied by multiple researchers to advance understandings of SFD. This could include strategies and best practices in trust and relationship building in communities, including relationship building for researchers in the field.

Moreover, it is the belief of this author, through the examination of statistical evidence (see Disability section), that the developing world is lagging behind in creative, adaptive programming. Research in this area to guide practice is imperative. Further, there are rising costs that individuals with disabilities are

placing on governments; however, more important sport and activity have proven to be an inexpensive and effective way to treat some individuals suffering from disabilities. Therefore, there should be research concerning successful strategies to integrate these individuals into society.

Additionally, research in adaptive sport in developing communities is needed, including studying inexpensive, yet therapeutic way for these individuals to regain confidence and self-worth. Overall, there should be an increased amount of research attention drawn to the links between sport for development and adaptive sport using the underlying framework by the SDP IWG (2007)

future research should begin to make connections between theory and findings from peace literature and contemporary understandings of sport and sporting practices. More research specifically examining sport and peace is needed, both in terms of program evaluation and policy development (p. 1)

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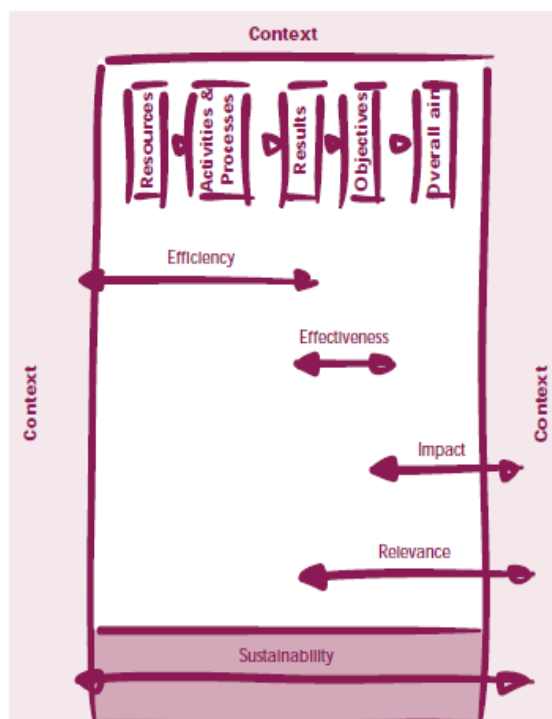
## Appendix A

### **Overview of Experiences in Relationship and Trust Building**

In Zambia you will see beauty, and the ugly, such as those stripped of their innocence at a young age. There was a boy named Terrence in whom I saw the “good”. I encouraged him to leave the street and learn to read and write. Terrence and I went to church every Sunday from the day I met him to the time I left. I helped Terrence in as many ways as I could. Terrence is now in school full time and he has hope to find work and provide for his two younger siblings. His parents abandoned him at a young age and he lives in a shack the size of my bedroom at home. His spirit and willingness to learn inspire me. I would like to think I am his mentor. He texted me last week saying that he loved me and we will be friends for life. Another friend, David, was a born-again Christian who inspired me to believe again. We speak on the phone weekly and he updates me on his life, as I do, mine. He wants me to be the god father to his kids! I also became great friends with a gentleman named David M with whom I spent hours after hours learning about Zambia, the language, and his life. I visited his house, got to know his beautiful wife and children. I felt so privileged to have been allowed to be included in his life. I have many more stories like these. However, the one with the most profound effect on me was during an interview where the participant shared the realities of his life and in the end told me he was HIV positive. I cried. The people of Africa are so accepting, polite, gracious, and thankful for life. Throughout my research I learned a lot about the topic I set out to research, but more important, I learned a lot about the people that are surviving in Africa, the cradle of civilization, home to many wonderful people who changed my life forever.

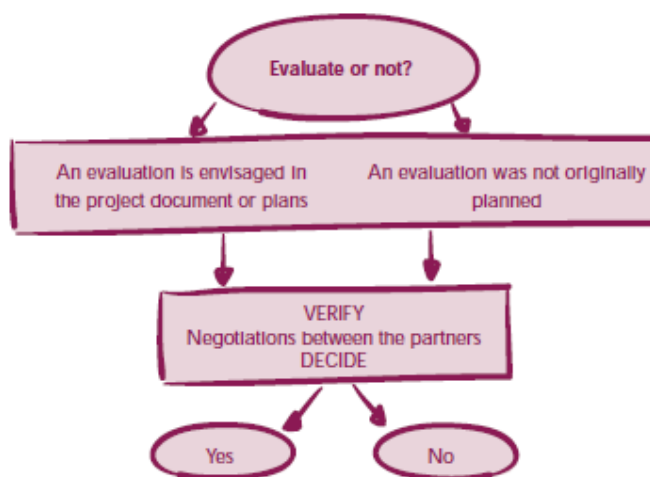
## Appendix B

SDC Evaluation Model (SDC, 2000, p 10)



### Appendix C

Evaluate or Not? (SDC, 2000, p. 15)



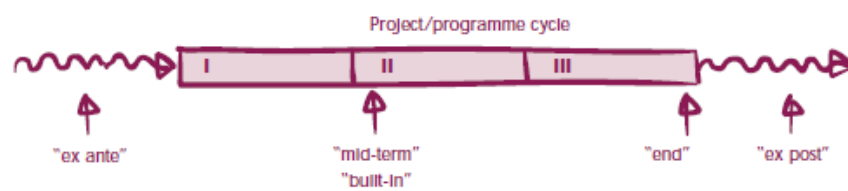
## Appendix D

Evaluating, Advantages and Disadvantages (SDC, 2000, p 15).

WHY?	<input type="checkbox"/>	Are there adequate bases on which to make a decision to continue the programme /project?
	<input type="checkbox"/>	Should experience be assessed?
	<input type="checkbox"/>	Are there any imminent decisions that would be forced or accelerated by an evaluation?
WHAT?	<input type="checkbox"/>	What experience is relevant? Which questions and topic need to be addressed?
	<input type="checkbox"/>	If an evaluation already had been carried out for the relevant programme/project, does it provide ground for a new evaluation?
WHO?	<input type="checkbox"/>	Who is demanding evaluation and what are the interests/expectations of the actors?
	<input type="checkbox"/>	Who needs to be involved in the evaluation process?
	<input type="checkbox"/>	Once the evaluation has been completed, who is responsible for the implementation of the measures?
HOW?	<input type="checkbox"/>	How is the evaluation integrated within the PEMT cycle?
	<input type="checkbox"/>	How deep should an evaluation be and how broadly should it be applied?
	<input type="checkbox"/>	Are sufficient funds available and budgeted?
	<input type="checkbox"/>	What form of evaluation most appropriate?
WHEN?	<input type="checkbox"/>	How does evaluation fit into other schedules and processes?
	<input type="checkbox"/>	When is the most suitable time for partners? Are the participants available during the projected evaluation period?
	<input type="checkbox"/>	Can sufficient time be set aside for proper planning and implementation?

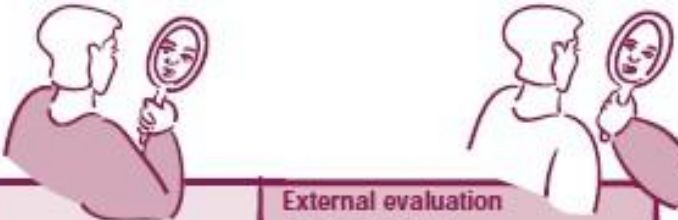
## Appendix E

Program/Project Cycle (SDC, 2000, p. 16)



## Appendix F

Internal vs. External View (SDC, 2000, p. 19)



<b>Self-evaluation</b> <b>"Internal view"</b>	<b>External evaluation</b> <b>"External view"</b>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ Evaluation object lies within own sphere of responsibility</li> <li>■ More detailed view from within the programme/project</li> <li>■ Periodic process; possible at regular, shorter intervals</li> <li>■ Proximity to those affected and to own project</li> <li>■ More economical</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ Evaluation object lies within other's sphere of responsibility</li> <li>■ Incorporation of knowledge of similar actions and themes</li> <li>■ Limited time frame; specific, often one-off action</li> <li>■ Distance from subject/project</li> <li>■ More cost-/effort-intensive</li> </ul>



**Appendix G**

Evaluation type & Responsibility for implementation (SDC, 2000, p. 1)

Evaluation type	Responsibility for implementation
External evaluation	Independent expert  Evaluation team comprising representatives of the organisation commissioning the evaluation and the partners
Self-evaluation	Persons responsible for the project  Persons responsible for the project, supported by an external person